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THE SIEGE OF YORKTOWN.

BY EDWARD C. HAYNES.

THE capture of the British army under Lord Cornwallis at the siege of Yorktown, in the seventh year of the Revolutionary War, was brought about by a succession of unlooked-for events in which the American cause was favored by happy accidents; and of these accidents the military genius of Washington made prompt and skillful use.

Active war had gradually drifted to the southern colonies. Washington with the main Continental army lay encamped on the Hudson watching the main British army in and about New York City. The French fleet and French army, allies of the Americans, were in and near Newport, Rhode Island, from which they could not safely move because they were threatened by a superior fleet of British vessels. Greene was beginning a campaign in the Carolinas in which he was destined to recover the prestige lost by Gates in the previous year. A small detachment of the American forces in Virginia was commanded by Baron Steuben.

In December, 1780, the British commander in New York, in order to reward Arnold for his late treason, gave him charge of an expedition against Virginia. He sailed with about 1,600 men for Chesapeake Bay, and landing at Westover marched to Richmond, where, in January, 1781, he wrought considerable destruction, after which he retired and took post at Portsmouth. This incursion of Arnold was the beginning of the Virginia campaign which ended with the surrender of Cornwallis.

Several favoring circumstances suggested to Washington the idea of sending a joint expedition of American and French forces to Virginia with the double object of protecting the state and capturing Arnold. He concerted measures to this end with the French commanders at Newport; and as a beginning started a detachment of 1,200 men from his own army on a southward march under command of Lafayette. He proceeded with his troops to Annapolis, expecting to be met there by a part of the French fleet. In this however he was disappointed. Two expeditions of French ships had indeed sailed for Chesapeake Bay. The first of three vessels entered the lower Chesapeake, but finding they could do nothing against Arnold, returned to Newport, bringing with them the British frigate *Romulus* which they had captured on the way. It was probably this success which stimulated a second effort. In a conference which Washington held at Newport with the French commanders it was arranged that the whole French fleet should proceed to the Chesapeake, carrying also a detachment of French troops.

The fleet sailed as agreed, but the British admiral being informed of the movement, promptly sent a squadron to meet it; and the hostile fleets, about equal in strength, had a partial and indecisive naval battle outside the capes of Virginia on March 16, as a result of which the French ships returned to Newport. This seemed entirely to frustrate the Virginia campaign, and Washington ordered Lafayette to bring his forces back to the

north. Scarcely however had he started on his return when Washington sent him new orders to continue his march to Virginia. These were issued in consequence of strong British reinforcements under Phillips having been sent to the help of Arnold. Phillips joined Arnold at Portsmouth and the ravage of lower Virginia was continued.

But the joint command soon terminated. Phillips died about the middle of May, and Lord Cornwallis came with 2,000 men from Wilmington, North Carolina, sent Arnold back to New York, and assumed the command in Virginia before the 1st of June.

Cornwallis' first object in his new command was to pursue and destroy Lafayette. But the young French general proved more than his match in strategy and vigilance. Warily evading the pursuit, he succeeded in forming a junction with Wayne, who brought 800 Pennsylvanians to his help, and also drew to himself the detachment under Steuben, which, with new reinforcements of militia, raised the American army to about 4,000. When, therefore, Cornwallis gave up his fruitless march toward the interior and returned to the sea, Lafayette was enabled closely to follow and considerably harass the British flank and rear.

Meanwhile events had occurred to modify the Virginia campaign. Information came from France in May that a strong French fleet under De Grasse, was proceeding to the West Indies with orders to spend part of the summer on the Atlantic coast to assist the Americans. Washington thereupon went to Wethersfield, Connecticut, and held a con-

ference with Count Rochambeau,* commander of the French land forces at Newport. De Barras [bä-rä], commander of the French squadron could not attend because of the appearance of the hostile British fleet.

Alternative plans appear to have been discussed; one was to make an attack on New York; the other to make a combined land and naval movement to Virginia. Either plan made it necessary that the French army should proceed to the Hudson, and thither Rochambeau led his forces late in June. This movement, with other preparations, convinced the British that New York would be attacked. Orders were therefore sent to Cornwallis in Virginia that he should take up a good defensive and healthy position on that coast, to be held as a permanent British military and naval station, and in obedience to this order Cornwallis marched to Yorktown and



Count Rochambeau.

proceeded to throw up strong fortifications.

The course of affairs remained uncertain till the middle of August, when word was received from De Grasse that he should sail for the Chesapeake and bring with him a land force of 3,500 men under St. Simon.

* Ro-shö-bö. The *o* in the second syllable has the French nasal sound, for description of which see foot note on page 49 of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for October, 1891. Kroch, in his "Pronunciation of French," calls such vowels nasal vowels, and says, "When a vowel is to have a nasal sound *m* or *n* is placed after it. Do not give any sound to this *m* or *n*." *Am, an, em, en*, all have the sound produced by making the *a* nasal, which gives it sound of short *o*, modified by causing "the breath to pass up almost vertically in the back of the mouth, so as to strike the soft palate and set it in vibration. . . . The air does not pass through the nose; it only vibrates in the nasal cavity, and can be made just as well with the nose held shut."

Up to this time Washington had hoped that a favorable opportunity would present itself whereby with the aid of Rochambeau's army which had joined him on the Hudson, he might make a successful attempt upon New York. But De Grasse's determination to go to the Chesapeake changed the whole aspect and current of the campaign. Upon receiving this intelligence Washington felt obliged, as he writes in his diary, "from the shortness of Count de Grasse's promise to stay on this coast, the apparent disinclination of their naval officers to force the harbor of New York, and the feeble compliance of the states with my requisitions for men hitherto, and the little prospect of greater exertion in future—to give up all ideas of attacking New York, and instead thereof to remove the French troops and a detachment from the American army to the Head of Elk,* to be transported to Virginia, for the purpose of co-operating with the force from the West Indies against the troops in that state."

Preparations for the new plan were made as rapidly as possible. Leaving General Heath with a sufficient force to observe the British army in New York, and having entirely mystified the enemy as to his intentions, Washington and Rochambeau with the remaining allied forces, about 5,000 French and 2,000 Americans, crossed the Hudson, and toward the end of August pushed rapidly for the head waters of the Chesapeake. There they were gratified to learn of the arrival of De Grasse, and began embarking troops in the few vessels they were able to gather to transport them down the bay, while they themselves with a light escort hurried on in advance.

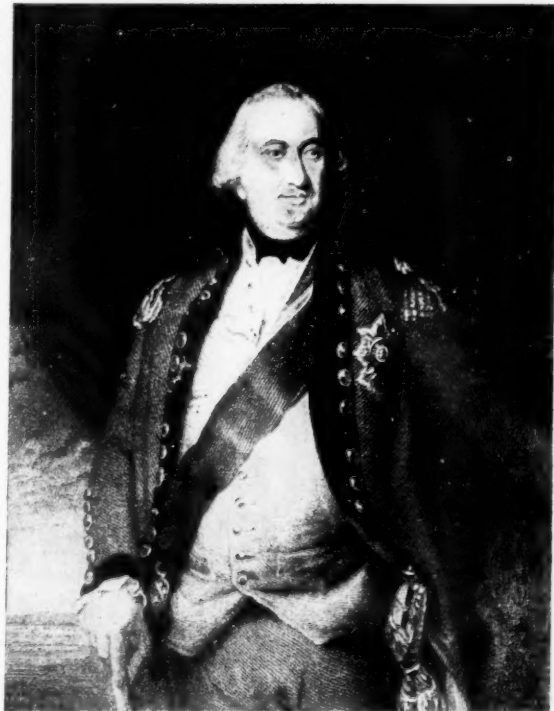
Washington who had not been at home for six years, made a brief visit to Mount Vernon, where he entertained his French guests two days,

*The Elk River rises in Pennsylvania and flows through the northeastern part of Maryland into the northern part of the Chesapeake Bay.

and then by forced marches pushed on to the camp of Lafayette at Williamsburg which they reached on the 14th of September.

Lafayette, who had constantly looked forward to the possibility which was about to be realized, of catching Cornwallis in such a trap by the happy concentration and conjunction of the allied land and naval forces, had followed the British with equal circumspection and persistence. Marching and skirmishing over ground again made historic by the civil war, he had taken position at Williamsburg, where he was safely joined by the French troops under St. Simon landed from the fleet of De Grasse.

On his way southward however Washington had encountered a piece of unwelcome news. Soon after leaving Mount Vernon he



Lord Cornwallis.

heard that the French fleet had suddenly left its anchorage and put to sea. This might afford an opportunity for Cornwallis to receive reinforcements from New York, or a chance of his escape by sea; but the doubt

was dispelled almost as soon as Washington reached Lafayette's camp.

Simultaneously with the southward movement of the allied armies, De Barras with his French ships of war and a number of transports carrying siege artillery and military stores, left Newport harbor and sailed southward to join De Grasse. The British commander in the West Indies had notice of De Grasse's intention; but mistaking his force, sent only fourteen British vessels to follow and meet him. This squadron looked in at Chesapeake Bay a few days before De Grasse's arrival; but finding no enemy there, and Cornwallis apparently secure, proceeded to New York to increase the British force at that point. Arrived at New York, intelligence was received by the British Admiral Graves, senior naval commander, that De Barras had sailed from Newport; and this, coupled with the knowledge that De Grasse must soon appear on the coast, induced Graves to put to sea with his combined fleets of nineteen sail, in search of the French squadron.

Proceeding to Chesapeake Bay he sighted the French fleet under De Grasse, which immediately stood out to meet him. A partial action resulted, lasting from four in the afternoon until sunset of September 5; but the conflict being indecisive, the hostile fleets continued to confront each other for several days, till the British admiral, despairing of gaining any advantage, sailed back to New York.

When De Grasse returned to his anchorage within the capes he found De Barras already in the bay, having by a circuitous route eluded the British fleet. Washington was further gratified to learn that French vessels had been dis-

patched up the bay to meet and bring down his own and Rochambeau's troops; and he at once sent back orders that the embarkation should proceed with all possible haste. Within the next ten days they also arrived, and were landed at Williamsburg. Cornwallis and his army were now hemmed in on the land side by the combined army of 16,000 men, and on the water side by the combined French fleets of about 37 ships. The British were in the toils; there remained only the task of completing their capture.

At this point the hopes of Washington and Rochambeau passed under a most tantalizing but happily transient cloud of apprehension. Information had come from New York that the British fleet at that place had lately been reinforced by the arrival of six additional vessels under the command of Admiral Digby. Washington at once communicated the news to Count de Grasse; and that officer announced his intention "to sail and

keep the sea," adding, "that in case the enemy attempt to force the passage I may attack them in a less disadvantageous position." He at the same time frankly confessed that the course of events might be such as to prevent his returning to resume the blockade.

Washington saw in this proposal a most serious danger that his anxious plans and laborious march might after all prove to have been made in vain; and he sent De Grasse a letter in which he used all his skill of reasoning to convince the French admiral of



Count de Barras.

the impolicy of such a movement. The latter, aided by the persuasions of Lafayette who bore it, had its intended effect. De Grasse laid the question before a council, and it was decided that the fleet should remain.

"The resolutions that you have taken in our circumstances," wrote Washington in acknowledgment, "prove that a great mind knows how to make personal sacrifices to secure an important general good."

The plans of co-operation thus maintained, on the 28th of September the allied armies began their movement from Williamsburg toward Yorktown, the Americans forming the advance under the command of Lafayette. It was only a short day's march; in the evening they were sufficiently near the enemy to bivouac for a more cautious approach. Difficult marshy ground was to be crossed, and resistance might reasonably be looked for, but scarcely any was met.

The next day, the French troops having also arrived, the allied forces stretched themselves around the British positions, the Americans extending their lines to the river on the right; the French doing the same on the left. The British Colonel Tarleton was across the river at Gloucester, opposite Yorktown. A strong detachment had been sent over to watch and hem him in.

A day later, September 30, general gratification was created in the allied camp by the further good fortune that Cornwallis had withdrawn his forces from all his outer works, and concentrated his entire strength within his inner lines. The allies promptly took possession of several redoubts the British had abandoned; and what was more important, found thus unexpectedly thrown into their hands, without an effort, the most advantageous ground upon which to begin their operations for the siege.

Cornwallis was not insensible to the dangers drawing about him. He had opposed the project of a fortified camp, and had gone with reluctance to Yorktown. That he so quietly allowed himself to be shut in was probably due partly to the greatly superior numbers of the allies, whose approach he could

not hope long to resist, though he might hold them at bay behind his works. But his greatest reliance lay in the fact that under the circumstances in which superior orders had placed him, he had a right to expect prompt and effective help from New York. This, indeed, was promised him

in a letter which he received when he withdrew from his outer to his inner works. A fleet of twenty-three ships and 5,000 troops were to sail from New York to his relief within five or six days.

But these expectations were destined not to be realized. The allies brought up their heavy guns and siege material with great expedition; meanwhile the redoubts which had come into their possession were strengthened, and new ones constructed. On the night of October 6, work was begun on the first paral-



Count de Grasse.

lel* within six hundred yards of the enemy; on the 9th, the first batteries, one on the American and one on the French side, opened fire upon Yorktown; and new ones were finished and added to these, day by day.

Washington had placed the conduct of the siege under the orders of Rochambeau; not only as a deserved compliment, but because the presence of highly educated French engineers rendered such an assignment of the greatest wisdom and utility. The French commander however payed the Americans the tribute of fully equaling his own troops in the bravery and devotion with which they performed their share of the siege work.

All this time the enemy had not been silent. The building of redoubts had been opposed by a vigorous British fire; and a heavy cannonade was kept up against the work in the trenches. Two British redoubts toward the

* "Parallel is a technical term applied to trenches and embankments dug and thrown up as a protection to besiegers against the guns of the fort. In this way the assailants may approach a fort and construct batteries within short gunshot of the works of the beleaguered and be well protected in their labors."

enemy's left gave the Americans so much annoyance that it was resolved to take them by assault on the night of the 14th. An American detachment under Lafayette was charged with the duty of capturing one; and Colonel Alexander Hamilton asked and obtained the privilege of leading the storming party. The task of taking the other redoubt was assigned to a detachment under Viomenil [vē-o-mā-nēl].

In these enterprises the Americans were most fortunate. Their very lack of drill and system proved an advantage. They tore away the abatis* as by a common impulse, and entered the work almost simultaneously from three sides. The capture was so sudden that the loss was but slight.

The redoubt stormed by the French was much the stronger work, and the assailants lost nearly a hundred men, occasioned largely by their more deliberate approach, and halting under fire till the abatis was removed according to system by the pioneers. Of the British garrison, eighteen were killed and forty-two captured.

Since the beginning of the siege Washington's only apprehension had been that Corn-

wallis might somehow effect his escape; and the general had pointed out that he would perhaps be tempted with his available shipping to proceed up the York River to West Point, and endeavor thence to make his way northward across the country. Such a plan, however, was partly frustrated by the fact that the hot shot from the besiegers' batteries had fired and burned his two vessels of war and several transports.

By this time Cornwallis' situation was becoming serious; the second parallel had been opened, and was being pushed rapidly forward; and to interrupt this work the British made an energetic sortie* on the night of the 15th. It so far succeeded that they made their way into two of the unfinished batteries of the French, and spiked seven or eight guns. But they were easily repulsed as soon as the nature of the attack was comprehended; and the guns were again without much difficulty rendered serviceable.

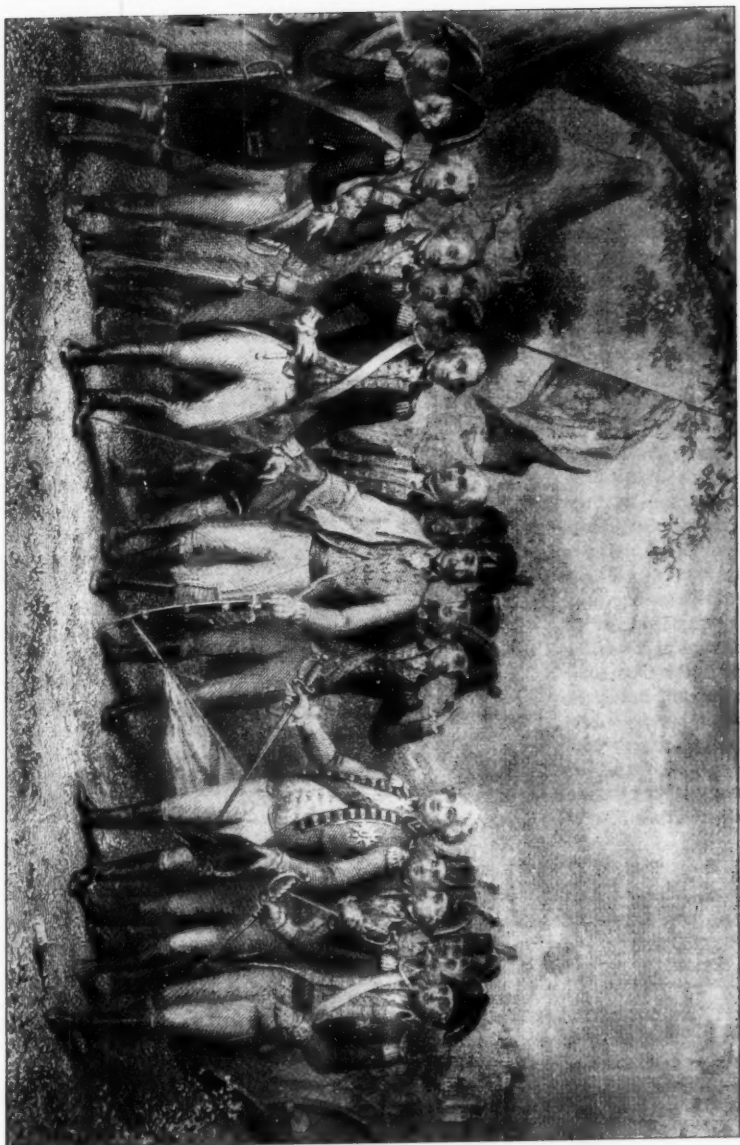
This effort at relief having practically failed, Cornwallis on the next night attempted to organize means of escape. His plan was to abandon his sick and baggage, cross suddenly in the dark to Gloucester; and massing his whole

* [Ab/a-tis]. A means of defense formed by arranging before the place to be guarded a thick row of the large branches of trees with the tops all turned outward.

* A sally.



Moore's House, Yorktown, Va.
Where the Treaty of Capitulation was Formulated.



The British Surrendering Their Arms.

effective strength, brush away the detachment which had been sent to hold Tarleton; and mounting as many of his troops as he could find horses for, proceed according to circumstances. But in this enterprise fortune was once more against him. The early evening was calm and propitious for the movement; and part of his troops had already been sent over in execution of the project, when the weather suddenly changed, and growing to a violent storm of wind and rain, the undertaking had to be abandoned.

Disheartened by the failure of this last hope, feeble and almost desperate as it was, and assailed from new batteries by a destructive cannonade, Cornwallis, on the morning of October 17, sent out a flag of truce, proposing a cessation of hostilities for twenty-four hours, and the appointment of two officers by each side "to settle terms for the surrender of the posts of York and Gloucester."

Washington replied that he would grant a suspension of hostilities during two hours, "that your Lordship's proposals in writing may be sent to the American lines."

Cornwallis seeing that his antagonist was in no temper to admit of delay, promptly returned an answer at half-past four that same afternoon, containing a brief outline of his basis of proposals. They were so reasonable that Wash-

ington had but few changes to suggest. He offered to grant the same honors to the surrendering army that the British had granted the garrison of Charleston; and on the following day commissioners met and formulated the terms of a treaty of capitulation, which was duly signed on the 19th of October, 1781.

There were surrendered 7,000 troops, over 240 cannon, about 40 vessels of miscellaneous kinds, and 1,000 seamen. The total losses on the British side were estimated at over 500; that of the allies at about half that number.

It probably added not a little to the chagrin of Cornwallis to learn afterwards that on the day on which his army surrendered, there set sail from New York the relief squadron which had been promised him; the expedition comprising about 7,000 British troops and 25 ships. They appeared off the capes of Virginia nearly a week after the surrender; but

learning that they were too late, returned to New York.

The capture of Cornwallis and his army was substantially the termination of the war of the Revolution, though hostilities continued in a sporadic way nearly a year longer. A preliminary treaty of peace was signed November 30, 1782, and the definitive treaty, September 3, 1783.



Cornwallis' Coat of Arms.

THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.*

BY JOHN G. NICOLAY.

THE French and Indian War of 1754 to 1760, which resulted in the conquest of Canada, is a period of special importance in the history of the New World. It was not alone the final and decisive contest between the French and the English colonies in North America for supremacy, but was in a measure a preliminary chapter to the War for American Independence. In it were de-

veloped the initial efforts to establish a federal government out of which grew the future Constitution of the United States. And more especially is it notable that the war was begun with the personal agency and action of George Washington, who learned in it his first lessons of military art, and gained that practical experience which qualified him to become the successful leader of the American Revolution.

Up to the middle of the eighteenth century

*Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

the English colonies in America along the Atlantic seaboard from New Hampshire to South Carolina, had not yet extended their settlements beyond the Alleghenies. Though their population had grown to nearly a million and a half there was still plenty of vacant land for farms; but there was an eager quest for the extension of the fur trade among the Indians; and an active spirit of speculation in lands on a large scale. Prominent men in the colonies associated themselves with wealthy and influential individuals in England for these combined objects; and the Ohio Company, composed of leading Virginians and their English associates, entered vigorously upon the prosecution of these enterprises, the field of its proposed activity lying about the head waters of the Ohio River.

But the title to this territory was in dispute. The king of France, and under him the government of Canada, claimed it by right of discovery and exploration. The king of England, and under him several of the American colonies, claimed it through conquest by and purchase from, the Indians of the Five Nations. When, therefore, a movement on the part of the English to occupy it became obvious, Duquesne, the governor of Canada, under instructions from France, sent an expedition from Quebec and Montreal up the St. Lawrence, over Lakes Ontario and Erie to Presque Isle. From Presque Isle (now Erie) it was but a short distance to the head waters of the Allegheny River; and the expedition was instructed to begin a chain of forts to connect Presque Isle with the Ohio. Only Fort LeBœuf on French Creek was finished during the season.

When information of this movement came to Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia, a shareholder in the Ohio Company, he sent George Washington, then a young surveyor, twenty-one years old, with a letter to Fort LeBœuf, to protest against what he claimed was an encroachment of the French on British territory. Washington left Williamsburg on the 30th of October, 1753, and made the journey across the mountains to Will's Creek, a trading post of the Ohio Company near Laurel Hill in West Virginia. From there he passed down the Monongahela, and after inspecting and admiring the forks of the Ohio, where Pittsburgh now stands, and visiting several trading stations, made his way up the Allegheny to Fort LeBœuf on the 11th of December, and delivered the governor's letter of protest.

After a return journey of great difficulty he made his report to Governor Dinwiddie on the 16th of January, 1754.

The reply of the French commandant and Washington's conversations with French officers, left no doubt of their intention to persist in their occupation of the Ohio country. The governor, who had reported the French invasion to England, had by this time received a letter from the king, authorizing him to expel by force any intruders within the limits of Virginia; and with this authority the Ohio Company sent an Indian trader named Trent to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio, while the governor ordered a regiment to be raised at Alexandria to support the expedition, of which Joshua Fry was made colonel, and Washington lieutenant colonel. Three hundred men were enlisted, and with half of these Washington pushed forward to Will's Creek, while Trent's men had reached their destination and begun the fort which they were destined not to finish.

The French authorities were quite as vigilant as the English, and much more prompt in action. About the middle of April, 1754, a force of 500 Frenchmen led by Contrecoeur, suddenly descended the Allegheny and seized the incomplete work, sending the English unharmed back to Will's Creek. The French immediately constructed a larger and stronger fort, which they named Fort Duquesne.

Dinwiddie deeming this a cause of war, strove earnestly to unite the military force of the neighboring colonies to expel the invaders. But he encountered great difficulties. To the common settlers the danger seemed too remote; the colonies of Virginia and Pennsylvania both laid claim to the territory in question. All the colonial governors were in chronic disputes with their assemblies about the extent of the king's prerogative on the one hand, and the rights of the people's representatives on the other. Men and supplies were grudgingly voted or not voted at all; the king insisting that the colonies must defend the frontier at their own expense.

Washington had not yet reached Will's Creek when he received news that the French were at the forks of the Ohio. He resolved to push forward and prepare roads for the remainder of the regiment which Fry was to bring. He had proceeded in this work some thirty miles beyond Will's Creek when he was informed by his guide and a friendly Indian chief named Half-King, that a strong French

party was advancing to attack the first English they should meet. He hastened on to a small open prairie called the Great Meadows, where he hurriedly formed an intrenched camp, and resolved to advance upon and surprise them.

On the night of May 27 at the head of forty of his men he went first to the camp of Hali-King, with whom he held a council, and agreed to join forces in striking the French. Then, guided by two Indians who had spied out the French camp, the allied party came upon the enemy as had been concerted; and here Washington opened the French and Indian War by giving the command to fire, and himself using a musket. The commander of the French, Coulon de Jumonville, was killed with nine others; and twenty-two were captured and sent as prisoners to Governor Dinwiddie at Winchester.

Though Washington was greatly elated by his success, a day's reflection convinced him that it was likely to bring upon him quick reprisal from the French. He earnestly asked reinforcements and supplies, and retiring to his intrenched camp at Great Meadows, changed it to a palisaded fort, which he named Fort Necessity, because of the short rations on hand during its construction. About this time Colonel Fry died and Washington remained in command.

His fears of an attack were realized. On the 3d of July an expedition from Fort Duquesne, consisting of from 500 to 700 French and a large body of Indians, attacked Fort Necessity, which Washington defended with between 300 and 400 English, the Indians all having abandoned him. It was mainly a battle with rifles and musketry at long range; lasting through an entire day of drenching rain; the French sheltered by neighboring trees, the English by their palisades. Both parties at length grew weary of the action. At night the French commander proposed a capitulation, to which Washington agreed, being allowed to retire, march out with the honors of war, and return to the settlements. Twelve Virginians had been killed and forty-three wounded, and the French acknowledged a loss of twenty in all. Washington retreated to Will's Creek, and the French, after destroying Fort Necessity, returned to Fort Duquesne.

Signs of a serious war had so multiplied as to cause a general movement to provide for a defense of the whole English border against the Indians. The French, through their ex-

tended trade, their long chain of posts from Montreal to the mouth of the Mississippi, and the devotion of their missionaries, had always excelled the English in securing the friendship and help of savage tribes. Even the Iroquois were beginning to waver in their hitherto firm allegiance to the English. To counteract this disaffection, a convention or congress of colonial governors and commissioners met at Albany in June, 1754, and renewed the English treaties with the Iroquois.

Out of this meeting naturally grew a discussion of some plan of union for a common defense of the frontier. Benjamin Franklin, who was present as commissioner from Pennsylvania, and who had studied and mastered the subject more thoroughly than the others, was deputed to draw up a formal project. He presented a plan of union already instinct with the spirit of American nationality and independence. The colonies were to be united under a governor general and a grand council of forty-eight members, with Philadelphia as the capital. Each colony was to retain its own constitution, but the central government was to manage Indian affairs, defend the colonies, and provide for the general welfare.

The time was not yet ripe for so novel an experiment. Local jealousy was still too active. Conservatives dreaded that the representative assemblies might gain too much liberty; liberals feared the king might retain too much prerogative. The project was not adopted; but it furnished many of the suggestions of the future Articles of Confederation and the Constitution of the United States.

The defeat of Washington at Fort Necessity roused the pride both of the colonies and of the home government. Though France and Great Britain were still nominally at peace, General Braddock was sent in the following year with two regiments to repair the disaster. He arrived at Alexandria in March, 1755, and there met the governors of the colonies in council, before whom he laid his instructions and plan of campaign which had four objects: 1. To recover Fort Duquesne and the Ohio Valley. 2. To take the French fort at Niagara, and separate Canada from her western possessions. 3. To drive the French from certain disputed lands in Nova Scotia. 4. To capture Crown Point on Lake Champlain, and control that route to Canada.

Braddock proposed to march in person against Fort Duquesne; and though warned of the difficulties of the route and the dangers

of Indian warfare, remained obstinately confident that it would be an easy task for his British regulars. Because of the rivalries and jealousies of officers, Governor Dinwiddie had dissolved his regiment into independent companies. This caused Washington to lose his commission as lieutenant colonel, and he became aid-de-camp to Braddock.

After much trouble and delay Braddock began his march with about 2,200 men, and on the 10th of May reached Will's Creek, which had been palisaded and re-named Fort Cumberland. A month was wasted here in further preparation, and the cumbrous expedition had advanced only about thirty miles by the 18th of June, when Washington advised him to leave the heavy baggage behind, and push on in haste with a picked force. Braddock adopted the suggestion, starting forward with about 1,200 men.

When within eight miles of Fort Duquesne on the 9th of July, they were suddenly attacked by a force of about 900 French and Indians. The road was narrow, the forest dense, and the English column stretched along a considerable distance. The difference in the mode of fighting decided the day. The French and Indians scattered and ranged themselves along the sides of the road in the thick woods behind trees, stones, and bushes, pouring their fire upon the columns of English who could discover no foe, and nothing to assail; and whom Braddock, adhering stubbornly to his notions of European warfare, refused to allow to separate and seek shelter behind trees as the enemy were doing. This one-sided conflict was kept up nearly three hours; and the slow butchery completely shattered and almost annihilated the English force. Washington was a conspicuous figure in the fight; two horses were killed under him, and his clothes were pierced by four bullets. He escaped all harm, but Braddock was fatally wounded, and died on the retreat four days later. Out of 86 English officers 63 were killed or disabled, and of Braddock's men, less than 500 escaped unhurt. The French loss numbered scarcely a dozen, and that of the Indians was only about thirty.

By this signal defeat the western campaign completely failed. Dunbar, the next in command, almost immediately evacuated Fort Cumberland, and withdrew to Philadelphia; and for two or three years the English settlers of the western frontier were exposed

to frequent incursions of various Indian tribes.

Returning home from the council held by Braddock with the colonial governors at Alexandria, Shirley, the governor of Massachusetts, himself undertook the leadership and execution of the second branch of the general plan of campaign, viz.: the capture of the French fort at Niagara, which would effectually divide the French possessions in the west from the parent colonies at Quebec and Montreal. With a small force he proceeded by way of Albany and the Mohawk River to the English fort at Oswego. His troops increased the garrison to about 1,300.

His plan had been to cross Lake Ontario and capture Fort Frontenac (at Kingston), but learning that the French garrison at that place outnumbered his own, his next project was to proceed westward and attack Fort Niagara with 600 men, leaving the remainder to defend Oswego against a possible attack from Frontenac. But at the moment of starting, a council of war decided the expedition impracticable for want of proper boats and supplies; and Shirley found himself compelled to give up the plan and return home, leaving the garrison at Oswego to strengthen the fort and prepare for a campaign in the following year.

His hopes were doomed to a mortifying disappointment. In the spring of 1756 war was formally declared between England and France, and the French government sent the Marquis de Montcalm, a leader of talent and energy, to command in Canada. The governor of Canada first ordered him to look after the defenses on Lake Champlain; but finding no immediate attack impending there, recalled him, and in July sent him on an expedition against Oswego. The communications of this post with Albany had been twice attacked, but the forts had been somewhat strengthened and supplied.

Early in August Montcalm appeared before Oswego with a force of 3,000 men, bringing abundant artillery. He invested the works, and after a siege of ten days compelled the English garrisons, numbering 1,400 to 1,600 to surrender as prisoners of war, carried away a hundred pieces of artillery, and destroyed the forts, the vessels on the stocks, and the provisions which the English had accumulated with much difficulty and expense.

The two other branches of the general plan outlined by the Alexandria council had a

more fluctuating course. One feature of the struggle between France and England for supremacy in North America, was the desire of both Canada and the New England colonies to enjoy and control the northeastern fisheries. So far, neither party had entirely succeeded. Of the islands about the Gulf of St. Lawrence, England possessed Acadia, the present Nova Scotia. But on Isle Royal, now called the Island of Cape Breton, the French had at great expense erected the fortress of Louisburg in a fine harbor.

To offset this, then the strongest military post in North America, the English government in 1749 founded the naval station of Halifax, midway on the eastern coast of Nova Scotia, and peopled it in three years with about 4,000 colonists. Disputes over an undefined boundary increased the natural friction between English and French colonists. As soon, therefore, as hostilities broke out, this became a point where the French might be assailed from New England. We have seen that Braddock brought instructions to this effect. Governor Shirley promptly sent an expedition of 2,000 New Englanders, which sailing on the 22d of May, 1755, captured the French forts Beauséjour and Gaspereau on the disputed border between Nova Scotia and the main land, before Braddock met his defeat.*

The proposed expedition to capture Crown Point and control Lake Champlain, had at the Alexandria council been intrusted to William Johnson, whose great influence over the Indians of the Five Nations fitted him best to secure their help in the undertaking. He began assembling his forces at Albany, but gradually advancing, built a fort (afterwards Fort Edward) at the falls of the Hudson, and made a road to Lake George, where he leisurely pursued his preparations.

By the defeat of Braddock and the capture of his papers, the French had become acquainted with all the English plans; and the governor of Canada sent Baron Dieskau with a force of more than 3,000 to defend Crown Point. Dieskau resolved to take the initiative. Proceeding southward to the head of Lake Champlain (Ticonderoga) and

leaving part of his force, he advanced by way of Wood Creek upon Johnson's camp. On the 8th of September, 1755, he caught a scouting party of 500 English and 200 Indians in an ambush and drove it back with severe loss. But his attack upon Johnson's camp the same day failed after a hot fight of four or five hours. Dieskau was wounded and taken prisoner, and the attacking force beaten back in disastrous retreat.

For nearly two years the hostile forces maintained their relative positions on this route. Johnson's camp was changed by the English into Fort William Henry, a strong work; while on their part, the French built a fort at the head of Lake Champlain which they named Fort Carillon, and which afterwards became Ticonderoga. This work was nearly completed in June, 1756, when Montcalm inspected it before his campaign against Oswego.

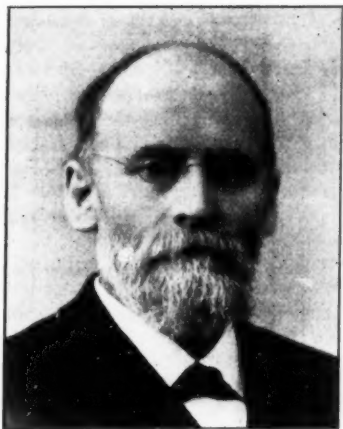
In the following year, 1757, active hostilities were renewed. By considerable effort a formidable military and naval expedition was organized in New York and New England to effect the capture of the fortress of Louisburg on the Island of Cape Breton; but the plan was foiled by the timely arrival of a strong French fleet and a severe storm which disabled the English vessels.

Fortune favored the French, not alone in maintaining their great northeastern citadel. Taking advantage of the absence of the English troops sent against Louisburg, Montcalm came from Canada in July, 1757, at the head of a force of 8,000 men, over Lakes Champlain and George in canoes and bateaux, and on the 4th of August laid siege to Fort William Henry, held by Lieutenant Colonel Monroe with a garrison of 2,200 men. After a stubborn defense of the fort, Monroe capitulated on the 9th, being granted the usual honors of war, and promise of protection against Montcalm's Indian allies. The French commander used his best efforts to keep the promise, but the Indians refused to be controlled, and a horrible massacre of a hundred or more unarmed English ensued. The French remained on the ground several days, during which time they completely destroyed Fort William Henry.

On the 16th of August the victorious flotilla sailed northward over Lake George, whose waters were to bear a yet more imposing procession of English both in advance and retreat, during the following year.

*At that time the island of Nova Scotia was known by its French name of Acadia, and the time and place are made more memorable by the forced removal of the Acadian settlers during the same autumn; the event upon which Longfellow founded his poem of *Evangeline*.—J. G. N.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.



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A GROUP OF OUR CONTRIBUTORS.

OUR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

WHAT IT IS; WHY IT IS; WHAT IT ACCOMPLISHES.

BY W. T. HARRIS.

United States Commissioner of Education.

IN America we explain our public school system by saying that a nation of voters must be an educated nation. Where ignorance prevails, either an absolute monarchy is necessary to restrain the people or else in case of a democratic form of government the demagogue will have the political control. We say that in a democracy each person is interested in the enlightenment of all his fellow-citizens. In a monarchy all the people are interested in the education of the monarch; their welfare depends on his goodness and wisdom. In a republic, where each is governed by all, it is the interest of each that all shall be wise and good.

Without education in literature, in science, and in history, the individual will be prone to superstition and intolerance. The selfishness of sectionalism and the selfishness of individuals will triumph over patriotism and personal integrity. It is a necessity for us to see to it that our rulers, the voters, are enlightened by schools and other civilizing influences.

This idea determines also the limit of public free education. Where the people are to obey laws made for them by an hereditary ruling class, it may be necessary that the people shall be taught in the schools so much as will enable them to read and understand those laws. But where the people are to make the laws as well as obey them, what limit can there be to the school education required except the full preparation of the individual citizen to carry on his education for himself?

No person completes his education at school. For the nature of spiritual life is to be a perpetual education unfolding eternally. Man's ideal is the divine-human Exemplar—all-knowing, all-powerful to do, and all-benevolent. The most the school can do therefore is to teach the individual how to carry on his education by the aid of the printed page and the proper use of his social opportunities.

If we were to ask the questions here: How did free governments originate? what ideas

germinated into representative democracies and republics, in the first place producing constitutional monarchies as a connecting link? we should be compelled to answer that the ideas of the Protestant Reformation led to the demand for schools in order to teach how to read the Bible. For the Bible was to be the ultimate appeal in all matters of doctrine. Hence the first duty of every Protestant was to master the inspired Word. Hitherto the Church had been ultimate authority, now it was the individual conscience supported by Scripture. Again we must note that Christian doctrine in its essential nature is radical and revolutionary, as taught from the very beginning, for it makes each individual soul immortal and an heir of salvation—it does not make him an accident of the state. The individual cannot be less substantial than his institutions for he has a career outlasting all earthly history.

From the very beginning the Church has manifested a tendency to vibrate between democracy and socialism. In a recent novel, "Arius the Libyan," the author describes, as something desirable, the socialistic democracy which existed among the eastern Christians and brings out cleverly enough its hostility to the Roman principle of the secular State. But the thoughtful student of history must see how important for modern civilization has been the adoption of that Roman principle. Although present history is seemingly departing from the imperialism borrowed from Rome yet in reality that principle has been absorbed by the principle of local self-government before the latter has been able to emerge successfully from absolutism. This is the significance of the backward movement of the French Revolution (i. e., its return to monarchy), of the frequent revolutions in the Spanish-American republics, and of our own Civil War. Democracy has had to discover and organize a supreme imperial unity which can successfully subordinate and harmonize all local centers before reaching a secure foothold on the new platform.

Here we see a deeper reason for founding our political and social structure on the education of all the people in a system of free public schools.

To state it explicitly we must say that an ignorant and superstitious people must have an absolute monarchy for their form of government, a partially educated people will have a constitutional monarchy with an elective legislature, while only a people with universal education can sustain a republican form of government. Give to an ignorant and superstitious people a republican form of government or even the form of a constitutional monarchy and a condition of anarchy will recur frequently. Life and property will never be secure in such a nation until it gets an absolute ruler and loses its rights of suffrage.

This is our reason for demanding a universal education of all classes of people in the United States. All classes suffer if one class is neglected, because the neglected class supports the demagogue and the demagogue lashes society with a whip of scorpions. He obstructs the passage of good laws, puts dishonest men in charge of public works, and appoints incompetent men to the judgeships.

An educated people reads books and newspapers, scrutinizes and criticises the government and the policy of political parties. It learns gradually to see through the actions of the demagogue.

Turning from this view of our needs and demands let us look at the realization. The first thing that strikes us is the fact that we have no national system. It is the policy of our local self-government to intrust nothing to the general government that can be managed as well by the individual states. The principle of local self-government is not stated precisely as our national policy states it. For it says that the general government shall see to all interests that are common to the whole nation while the states shall each control affairs that are of local interest only. Again within each state such interests as concern only the individual township shall be managed by said townships without state interference. When two or more towns have a common interest the county or the state shall adjudicate. When two or more states have a common interest the nation as the higher unity shall adjudicate.

It is clear that education is of vital interest to our form of government. The inhabitants C-Apr.

of Mississippi have an interest in the education of the people of Pennsylvania because the voters of the latter state help to make laws which affect Mississippi. So Pennsylvania is vitally interested in the education furnished in Mississippi for the reason that Pennsylvania's national interests are partly controlled by the votes of Mississippi cast for president and for congressmen.

Here is a text for a sermon on national aid to education and for national compulsory educational laws. But I trust that no person will draw the conclusion that we ought to adopt the centralized educational system of France, no matter how strongly he believes in the duty of the nation to look after education. Our doctrine of local self-government tends to increase the directive power in all places outside the centers. But this does not necessitate a "let-alone" policy. For the general government may stimulate local action by subsidizing it, or it may pass laws compelling a minimum provision for schools. Public opinion is our reliance. We may count on the influence of public opinion to prevail ultimately in favor of public schools in all parts of the country.

There are at present in the United States annually enrolled in schools of all grades, public and private, upwards of fourteen millions of pupils. About twenty-three per cent of the population receive instruction in some school for a longer or shorter period. The average number of days which each pupil actually attends school during the year is eighty-eight. Taking out the holidays there are left twenty-two days in a calendar month for school. Hence we may say that nearly one fourth of the entire population devote four months, or a third of the year, to school. This brief annual session is not so bad as it seems at first. For it must be remembered that the educative effect of the first four months of a school session is much greater in proportion than the second four months.

The boy in the country school learns in four months more than one half as much as he would learn in a longer term of eight months. Perhaps the teacher will not be ready to admit this. For the pupil seems to make more rapid progress during the second half of the school term. During the first month the pupil was learning habits of study and the technical routine of the school; he was accustoming himself to the work of a scholar

and acquiring the use of his implements. The subsequent period of work seemed more fruitful, after the mastery of these preliminaries.

But it remains true that the work of forming habits and of acquiring the use of apparatus is more educative than the routine work done after the days of apprenticeship are finished. The educative value of work belongs chiefly to the formative period. What the pupil does at the beginning of a new course of study is more educative than what he does after he has learned the spirit and methods of the new branches and acquired the art of their manipulation. After a habit has been acquired the action becomes to some extent unconscious and mechanical and the living mind deserts it and leaves it to be performed by the semi-intellectual powers of the soul.

The physiological psychologists explain to us that the cerebrum is used in conscious and deliberate action but that only the great ganglia at the base of the brain are used in mere habitual action. This deserves to be considered by all directors of education. The so-called "breaking in" of the mind of the pupil to new courses of study is far more educative than the subsequent work. Hence the first month in the kindergarten averages greater fruits than any second month; the first year in the primary school is more productive than the second; the first year in the secondary school or in the college gives a greater stimulus to growth than the years that follow.

In the secondary school the pupil passes from arithmetic to algebra; from his native English to a foreign language. He is forced to turn his attention from the matter to the form of what he is studying. A new faculty of insight is born in his soul, for he learns to perceive forms now and is not confined to individual details so much as before. While arithmetic deals with particular numbers and concrete values, algebra deals with general numbers and abstract values and each algebraic problem is a general solution of a whole class of arithmetical problems.

Again, while the pupil in his English grammar deals only with the familiar inflections and idioms and is not strongly impressed with the form and structure of his native tongue, when he takes up Latin or some foreign language his attention is forced upon the differences in the order of words, and the

strange variety of inflections. He receives a training in the observation of forms. This is a new birth or regeneration of his intellect. But the second year's study of algebra and Latin does not add any such radical element of growth to the pupil's mind.

Let him, however, begin geometry or Greek and he finds new faculties called into exercise. So in college the study of analytical geometry brings to consciousness the forms of construction which the pupil used but did not notice while studying Euclid; in the differential and integral calculus he comes to a deeper realm of forms underlying all that he has heretofore studied. In the study of comparative philology, likewise, he turns from the structure of a special language to the formative structure of all language and thus acquires a new faculty of observation and reflection, so to speak.

Everywhere in education it is the beginnings that most develop the power of the intellect. But the subsequent stages do more for the formation of habits and consequently appertain chiefly to the side of skill and execution. The demand of the teacher and school director that the school term shall be lengthened does not concern the intellectual growth of the pupil so much as his practical growth, his formation of ethical habits, polite conduct, and skill in doing various kinds of work.

The enrollment of a people in school must be considered very large when it amounts to more than one fifth of the population. No country of Europe except Saxony has such an enrollment. But the European schools hold longer annual sessions than we do.

In our cities and villages the schools are in session about ten months, or two hundred days. In the sparsely settled districts of the country the sessions are three and four months. In these rural schools as we have seen, the education is more intellectual and less industrial, social, and moral.

How about the grades of instruction? The returns show that 94 per cent of the pupils are receiving elementary instruction such as is given in the district schools in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and history. The district schools include primary and grammar schools. Only six pupils in a hundred on an average are studying a secondary course of study or a college course or some professional course. About one in a hundred pupils is at college and five in a hundred are

in secondary studies at high schools or preparatory schools. The characteristic studies of the secondary course are algebra, geometry, physical geography, natural philosophy, general history, English literature, Latin, and some other language.

Here comes out the weakness of our educational system. We ought to have far more pupils in the higher grades. Twenty per cent of the entire population belong to the ages of 6 to 13 inclusive and these should be in the elementary schools. Eight per cent of the population belong to the ages 14 to 17 inclusive and are of ripe age for secondary studies; eight per cent belong to the four years including the ages 18 to 21, for higher education. Were all the population to receive higher education there would be twenty-two pupils in every hundred in secondary schools and a like number in our colleges while there would be only fifty-six in the elementary schools.

It seems therefore that the secondary schools get less than one fourth their quota, and the colleges less than one twentieth. Here is the strong reason for enterprises in the line of university and school extension such as Chautauqua has pioneered. Let those who leave school for work continue their studies under proper guidance and take up secondary and higher studies. Let the whole of life be a university and each man and woman a student ever climbing, if but slowly, toward proficiency.

The elementary instruction is and must be of a superficial character: chiefly a matter of mechanical dexterity and mechanical memory—an acquirement of the arts of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and the technical terms and distinctions used in geography, history, grammar, and the natural sciences.

The secondary instruction deals more with relations and grows richer. It begins to consider the dependencies of things upon one another and to be interested in causes and processes. It is higher education however that deals with the unity of all knowledge. No matter how far our college education falls short of its ideal, its aim is certainly to see things in their just relations, and this requires philosophy.

Here we see a radical difference between the qualities of the different kinds of instruction. The difference in age and maturity gives occasion for this difference. The child desires to see and hear. He wants an inventory of things.

Thing is accordingly the chief category of elementary education. But the youth gets more interested in causes and processes and desires to become acquainted with forces. The category of secondary education is therefore cause in the sense of explanation through forces. The mature person has learned to think more upon the conduct of life and is consequently more interested in understanding the relation of all things and forces to the rational self-direction of his life. He asks: what is the bearing of each and all on the present question what to do, here and now? Interpreted theologically his question relates to the person of God and His purpose with His creation. Interpreted scientifically it relates to the first principle of philosophy,—the Absolute Reason.

How are the schools that educate these fourteen millions of pupils supported? How many are free and supported by the public and how many are private and supported by the church or by individuals and corporations? About 90 per cent of all the pupils attend public schools and 10 per cent attend the private schools. This nine tenths for public schools is very large compared with the old-time history of our schools and a very large ratio when we compare it with our mother country England. The private schools there enroll 61 per cent of all the pupils in elementary schools while here the same grades of private schools enroll less than 9 per cent.

The proportion of private secondary schools is much larger, amounting to 27 per cent of this class of schools. A still larger proportion of the higher instruction is performed by the private colleges—nearly three fourths of all that grade of work, the state universities having only one fourth of the students.

The trend is very strong toward the establishment of public high schools and the number of such is already over five thousand. The private secondary schools are slowly losing ground except in the older sections of the country where wealth is most accumulated.

It may be said here that the increase of wealth over the whole country, which is very rapid owing to the general introduction of labor-saving machines in all departments of industry, has the effect of encouraging private schools and preventing their disuse.

Families are continually ascending out of the poor classes into the ranks of the well-to-do families. This happens wherever productive industry is flourishing. In fact the num-

ber of well-to-do families in each thousand in England more than doubled in the thirty years between 1860 and 1890. In the United States the increase of wealthy families has been even more rapid owing to the same causes, namely, the use of steam and machinery. I call a well-to-do family one whose income is \$1,000 per annum and upwards. Thirty per cent of the families of England are already receiving this amount and, as nearly as ascertained, 33 per cent of American families. France, thanks to its skilled artisans, is nearly up to England. But Italy with its neglect of machinery has accumulated only a small amount of wealth in the hands of the middle classes. The latest statistics show less than 2 per cent of the families reporting incomes of \$1,000 and upwards.

Looking at this rapid rise of families in wealth we see how social and other questions originate to stimulate experiments in education along the line of private schools. It is not probable that the ratio of private schools will decrease nor is to be regarded as desirable except in the case where religious zeal divides the community.

The ordinary private school is in some sense a goad to spur on the public school boards to increase the efficiency of their schools. In case a school board gets niggard in its provisions there begins to flourish the private institution and the community is thus warned to adopt a different policy.

The most noteworthy feature in the recent education of this country is the establishment of public schools throughout the South and the large attendance of pupils both colored and white. In the sixteen former slave states and

the District of Columbia the white population increased about 30 per cent in the 13 years previous to 1889. But the common school enrollment increased 75 per cent during that period. The colored pupils increased much faster, namely 113 per cent, although the colored population as a whole had increased less than 25 per cent. The total enrollment in public schools in the entire South is just one fifth of its population—a fine showing were it not to be said that the annual school term is short, being only ninety-five days. The length of term however is increasing with the growth of cities and villages.

The introduction of manufacturing in the South is causing an increase of villages and cities and in all such centers the school flourishes in a degree unprecedented in our history.

The United States possesses no centralized system of education. Not even the several states have this. But on the whole, it is believed that the cultivation of local directive power compensates for the gain which might be secured through centralization.

The Bureau of Education aims to collect information, digest it, and distribute it so that each individual and institution may do its work in the light of all that is done elsewhere. Government centralization is bad when it undertakes to do for the private citizen what he can do better for himself. But the collection and distribution of information is a work that stimulates self-help and in no case hinders it. The government may therefore properly enough sustain a Bureau of Education but not a centralized directive power to control education in the several states.

THE NEGRO IN AMERICA.

BY HENRY WATTERSON.

I.

AFRICAN SLAVERY.

THE history of slavery the world over is the history of all that is mercenary and brutal in human nature. In America, while it lasted, it varied in no essential particular the aspects it had shown elsewhere. Whether property in man was acquired by conquest in battle or by purchase, the spirit of domination, equally unreasoning and unjust, never failed to assert

itself; and, although there have been everywhere, and notably with us, degrees of rigor in the exercise of this domination, its principle has always remained the same. The distance separating a St. Clair or a Shelby and a Lagree may have been very great, indeed, as it surely was; but, notwithstanding, the one was no less than the other, a master. In nothing more cogent than in this illustration did Mrs. Stowe point the moral of her powerful and true story.

I hold the account for the grievous sin and great cost of African slavery in the United States not very far from even between the North and South, at the time that the Constitution went into effect and the government was organized. If the issue, which came later, had been made at that time, there would have appeared quite as much "conscience" in Virginia and Maryland as in Massachusetts and New York. Mr. Jefferson and the educated and honorable men about him were far too intelligent and sincere to make any mistake as to the nature of a system in a nation founded on free institutions. That Washington, a rather stern and hard man, was kind to his slaves may indicate that he was too great a man to be cruel to the weak and lowly. But it meant more than this. It meant a question in the mind of the Father of his Country whether he was not the father equally of the blacks with the whites, and a doubt as to his moral right and title to ownership in the former. As late as the battle of New Orleans, Gen. Jackson called the blacks to arms upon the same basis as their "white fellow-citizens," thus, technically, antedating the last three Constitutional Amendments some fifty years.

First and last, the negro was an article of traffic. Brought here in New England ships by New England captains and New England sailors, and sold where he would sell dearest by New England merchants, the poor African fared little better in Boston and New York than he fared in Charleston and Savannah. But he was best suited to the climate and to the employments of Virginia and the Carolinas. At this point, the cotton gin made its appearance, and at once cotton became the leading staple of the Southern states. The merchants of the North, finding slave labor unprofitable, sold their slaves to the planters of the South and put the money they got for them into better paying investments. The planters, making a losing bargain, harnessed the negro slave to the cotton gin, and all went merrily and to every appearance prosperously, for a long time.

There was no question, North or South, as to the legality of the case. Half a century passed without any serious moral disturbance. The few protestants who turned up in the persons of Benjamin Lundy and his followers, were whistled down the wind, as a set of crazy agitators. They gained foothold nowhere. They were mobbed even in Bos-

ton. So great was the love for the Union which these men seemed to menace! Yet Lundy was a wise, far-seeing man, who loved his country and had conceived a more enlightened plan for the preservation of both the solidarity and the integrity of the Union. Had he been heeded, the story of the fifty succeeding years of travail and war might have been reversed.

But the question of slavery got into politics, and when any question gets into politics, good-by to truth—at least, good-by to truth for a long while. The average politician has his natural evolutions to compass. First of all, he must "be sure he's right," of course. Then he must be sure that "the people are with him." In the event of doubt, he must wait and see; he must be conservative and practical. Otherwise, he ceases to be a statesman and becomes an agitator, the greatest of all horrors to the professional placeman.

Thus, when slavery got into politics, and when the politicians found out that it was a gold mine of political ammunition of one sort and another, they began to turn it to the best account. There was a radical Southern party who held slavery to be of divine origin and indispensable to the cultivation of cotton. There was an extreme Northern party, who half admitted both propositions, as far as the slave states were concerned, but contended that—as cotton did not grow outside the slave states—the negro should be given the benefit of the doubt in the territories. Then there was a middle party, a most respectable, bald-headed party, wearing a ruffled shirt and carrying a silver-headed cane, whose shibboleth was the Constitution, the Union, and the enforcement of the laws—each of these terms having, as the saying now is, a string to it—and this party deprecated the agitation of slavery at all! Behind these clamored the little group of crazy agitators who had succeeded Lundy, now led by Phillips and Garrison, Lovejoy and Giddings. (I omit from classification that grand old man, a party all to himself—whose outgivings, almost inspired, ought to have warned his countrymen—John Quincy Adams.)

And so it went. The political elements thus arrayed, they badgered and they blustered, they wrangled and they canted. Finally, the dread sectional line was clearly and squarely drawn. It was mythical and invisible. But it was called Mason and

Dixon's; it went straight east and west, and it divided north and south into hostile camps.

Cotton was king. Slavery was divine. So fifteen millions of white men, hardly one fifth of them owning slaves, took the field to fight for the sovereignty of cotton and the divinity of slavery. Mark the sequel! Before the War of Secession the South, with slave labor, never reached the production of five million bales of cotton. Since the war, with free labor, it has never fallen under these figures, but has gone on increasing its yield to six, seven, eight, and is now approaching nine millions of bales. Such is the irony of fate, which is but another name for the infirmities of men's judgments and the wickedness or folly of their conduct.

Here was an institution, inhuman in its origin, degrading in its contaminations, and illogical in its argument; as a labor system clumsy and costly; as a political system untenable and obstructive; as a domestic system immoral and cruel; yet a million of brave men took the field to fight for it and to perpetuate it, and during four years stood against odds incredible, raising the standard of American soldiership to the highest point of fame and honor, and signalizing, in their ultimate defeat, virtues unsurpassed in human annals.

A strange story, truly!

II.

THE FUTURE OF THE NEGRO.

The conduct of the slave during the great sectional war—while it tells of his simple kindly nature, also tells of his abject subjugation. To give him his freedom all at once was a doubtful experiment; to give him the franchise all at once was a dangerous adventure. And yet, what was to be done with him? He could not be held in suspension, a kind of Mahomet's coffin, in mid air.

Both a theory and a condition faced the statesmen who had the disposition of the case. The theory was that, made a freeman, a citizen, and a voter, the negro could and would thenceforward be able to take care of himself. The condition was that, as he stood in his bare feet, he was neither fish, flesh, nor fowl. The original supporters of negro suffrage, such men as Seward, Chase, and Sumner, were filled with the loftiest motives of public duty, and were both sanguine and sincere. They, at least, were not inspired by party greed or by sectional hate.

Just after the war I had a conversation with Mr. Chase on this point. He was exceedingly earnest and argued the case with the power which he threw into everything that lay near his heart. During one of the pauses in the stream of eloquence I said: "Mr. Chief Justice, what are you going to do when, having enfranchised the blacks and rehabilitated the whites, they send Jefferson Davis back to the Senate of the United States?"

The old statesman did not hesitate a moment. "Why, let them!" he exclaimed. "And why not? If slavery is ended, and all men, black and white, are free, who shall dare abridge their liberty or limit their field of selection? If Jefferson Davis be their choice for a representative, who shall say them nay? But, my young friend, you are very much mistaken. Turn everybody loose, make everybody free, deny to Mr. Davis and the rest the benefits of martyrdom, and he and those who are responsible along with him for the disasters which the war has brought upon the South, will be the last men whom the whole people of the South would choose to intrust with their political interests. Indeed, Mr. Davis himself would prefer to go anywhere rather than to Washington, where everything would be a reproach."

These were, in a general way, the ideas that filled Mr. Seward and Mr. Sumner. They seemed plausible. They were attractive to the speculative mind. They did open a way out of a most embarrassing situation. Twenty-five years of practical application—vexed as they have been by many side issues and misleading questions which were not calculated, but which might have been foreseen—have disclosed their visionary character.

The slave was unprepared for his freedom. Easy and docile, densely ignorant and in many cases semi-barbarous, he became the ready prey of all who found a profit in subjecting him to their uses. Naturally he fell into the worst hands.

Then came an era of political freebootery, to which he served as a mere appendage and pretext. Then came an era of reaction and violence, to which he served as a victim. Then came an era of exhaustion, to which, and both with the blacks and the whites, peace stood in the relation at once of a blessing and a necessity. What will come next, who shall say? But that negro suffrage is a failure, no thoughtful man can doubt who has any personal knowledge of Southern elec-

tions. And what are we going to do about it?

We have tried force. The absence of force has tried itself. All to no purpose. Guns will not educate the blacks in citizenship, and schools—where they exist and are attended—are neither satisfactory nor encouraging. Schemes of colonization would be cruel if they were not idle. There he is—the negro in the South—and he is there to stay. Mr. Lodge, with his Massachusetts plaster for Mississippi ills, may be a good doctor, as doctors go, in New England; but, after the total breakdown of the heroic treatment, to which General Grant gave eight years of his vigorous administration, ending with a confession of its ineffectuality, what might be expected of a weak imitation at second hand? Nothing but irritation and outcry, confusion and anarchy, reaction and stagnation, with a record of “no progress” and a pretty bill to pay! Texas cannot be squared by rules laid down in Rhode Island and Vermont. The federal government cannot police the states. The army does not exist to supervise elections. Meanwhile, it is as easy to make a black skin a white skin as it is to protect the vote of a man who cannot read or write.

The methods and machinery by which the vote of the poor negro is compassed, and by all parties, Republicans and Democrats alike, as interest or occasion makes his vote useful, would be laughable if they were not so tragical. I am aghast when I think of the demoralization which, like a slow poison, is percolating through the veins of the younger generation of white and black men in the farther South, and when I consider what this must impose upon the future of the country.

For a long time I had a hope which looked to the gradual education and elevation of both races. But this hope has grown weaker and weaker, until at last I am thrown back upon a simple, sublime faith in God, who can raise up as He has cast down, and who doeth all things well. Taking, however, a purely mundane and practical view of it, one solution of the problem, very plain and easy, occurs to me.

The people, the white people of the South, I mean, like the white people of New England—and for the matter of that, the white people of every part of the country—are exceedingly tenacious of their local sovereignty and jealous of everything that threatens or seems to threaten it. The period of Reconstruction put a sore strain upon the Southern imagination. It greatly aroused and in-

tensified the sense both of tenacity and of jealousy; so much so, indeed, that even now it is necessary for a politician only to hold up this specter of federal intervention, to solidify the entire white population.

Thus the “bloody shirt” has been as potent in the South as in the North, kept intact by the use the demagogues of both parties have found occasion to put it to. One would think it had worn out long ago. But it seems to be one of those garments which renews itself whenever it is exposed to view, a kind of Irish corduroy that improves its texture with every fray, growing never the worse for many coats of mud and blood. Mr. Lodge, with his Force Bill, gave it a new shine, and, as exigency requires, there is no knowing how long it may last, to glorify the professional politicians and to confuse and mislead great bodies of Christian men and women, who, in all other things except the sectional issue to which this execrable scarecrow serves as a double ensign, with one side for the North and the other side for the South, love together, pray together, hope together, fellow-citizens, fellow-countrymen, Americans, all.

But the time must come when the “bloody shirt” and all that it implies, will be laid away forever in the dark closet where lie the other unclean linen and broken idols of a century of party warfare. The time must come when all men will turn a deaf ear to the appeals of sectional passion. The time must come when nobody in the North can be aroused by wild stories about Southern malevolence and nobody in the South can be frightened by mad-dog cries of federal interference. Northern men and money are pouring into every part of the South. They are doing a great work of pacification. They will in the end do their perfect work of unification. Then will the whites of the South—no longer menaced in reality or in their foreboding from without—divide upon rational not racial, lines, and with them the blacks; and each set of whites will take care of its own set of blacks, seeing that every vote is polled and counted. Then we shall hear no more about eight-box devices, or tissue ballots, and the old refrain will be altered to be said or sung:

“The bulldozer is a-weary
And the darky am at rest.”

III.

THE MORAL OF IT.

There was a time when I regarded the Ne-

gro Problem with exceeding dread. That it is a serious question, I very well know and still believe. But it seems to me that the country is beginning to outgrow it.

The people of the United States are an eminently practical people. They are, also, an eminently homogeneous people. The spirit of activity and invention, of adventure and acquisition is everywhere. This will brook no obstruction, and, as it brushed the aborigine out of its way, will it, if need be, brush the African. The organic forces of civilization are as brutal as those of barbarism. But the negro, unlike the Indian, is a domestic animal. He is tractable and adaptable. The black man will bend where the red man broke, and, in the long run of the ages, be swallowed up by the ocean of Anglo-Saxonism, which will roll over the entire continent. In the meantime, we should deal with him as a man and brother, certainly, but as an inferior, which he undoubtedly is. The problem, in short, with which the people, North and South, have to deal, is how to secure white supremacy by means both peaceful and benign.

I ought to say in concluding these very random observations, that, on the sentimental side, my sympathies are, and have been, very much with the black people. Passing a considerable portion of my childhood and youth-hood upon a Southern plantation, I grew to manhood the friend, and not the enemy, of the African as a race and as an individual. From my earliest recollection, the idea of slavery was odious to me.

When I was about six years old, my play-

mates about my grandfather's place were little negro boys and girls. I had my black mammy and my Uncle Isaac, who were very dear to me, and whose memory is still dear to me.

One day my Uncle Isaac was brought up to be whipped for some petty offense. I was scampering, as usual, about the negro quarters, ignorant of what was impending. But the cries of the man and the preparations for the chastisement soon brought me to a realization of what was about to happen. I threw myself into my Uncle Isaac's arms and made such a desperate struggle in his behalf that my grandfather's overseer, who was a stern, resolute man, and not to be lightly turned from his purpose, caused me to be forcibly torn away and carried off. They took me to an upper room and locked me within, and I well remember how, as I listened to the lashes and the screams of the poor slave, I ran frantically about, and beat upon the green shutters, which I can feel and see as I write these lines. That was enough for me. From that hour, the ownership of man by man became to my mind the wickedest and cruelest thing on earth, and there has been no time since, when, upon that point, I entertained any other opinion.

Happily, slavery is gone. The slave is a freeman. The freeman is a citizen and a voter. Sentiment can no longer deal adequately with him or the problem of which he is the subject. What is wanted with respect to him and it, is enlightened justice, and this must largely emanate from the South, for the North is wholly unequal to the determination of the case.

THE ABOLITION OF SLAVERY IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY PROF. JOHN BACH McMASTER.

Of the University of Pennsylvania.

THE movement for the abolition of slavery in what is now the United States, may be said to have begun with a protest of four Friends to the Germantown monthly meeting in 1688. The arguments were so forcible and the matter so serious, that the meeting referred the paper to the quarterly meeting, which in turn passed it on to the yearly meeting, which, after many delays, sent a minute to the Society of Friends. Each member was advised not to buy any more negroes and to be very

careful of the moral and religious training of such as he already had.

But nothing serious was done till 1743 when an annual query was started to find out how many members of the society had really ceased to buy or bring in slaves. Many had done so. More had not, and these the society began to punish by forbidding them to aid in the meetings of discipline, to take part in society affairs, or to give one penny toward the relief of the destitute and the poor. When the Revolution opened,

every one owning a slave was in danger of being cast out.

Meanwhile so many had obeyed that, in 1775 there were in the province of Pennsylvania thousands of freed negro slaves. To seize these freedmen, run them off, and sell them again into slavery became so common a crime that five days before the battle of Lexington some gentlemen met in the Sun Tavern at Philadelphia and formed a "Society for the Relief of Free Negroes Unlawfully Held in Bondage." The Revolution opened almost immediately, and during nine years the society did nothing. At last, in 1784 the members once more assembled and began a long career of activity and usefulness.

The cause of the negro was then most popular. The solemn assertion of the Declaration of Independence that all men are created equal, the long struggle for liberty, the widespread discussion of the rights of man, did much to bring slavery into disrepute. The Methodists now followed the lead of the Friends and bade every member of their society emancipate his slaves, if the laws would permit within twelve months. Before a decade passed abolition societies sprang up in Rhode Island, in Connecticut, in New Jersey, at New York, at Philadelphia, at Baltimore, in Virginia, in Pennsylvania, and on the eastern shore of Maryland. New Hampshire and Massachusetts became free states by the interpretation the courts placed on the declaration in the Constitution that "all men are born free." Before the century ended Vermont joined the Union as a free state; Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York had passed laws for the gradual abolition of slavery; Virginia and Maryland had revised their emancipation statutes; and the Continental Congress in the last year of its existence enacted the famous ordinance of 1787 which forbade the introduction of slavery into the territory northwest of the river Ohio. The courts in interpreting this ordinance have held that it did not emancipate such slaves as in 1787 were in this territory, but merely prohibited any more coming in.

That same year the Federal Constitution was framed, and in 1789 went into force. But hardly had Congress begun to exercise its powers under the Constitution when it was called on by the Friends and the abolition societies to do something toward the liberation of the slaves. After a stormy debate the House of Representatives declared that they

had no power to emancipate slaves, nor meddle with the treatment of them in any of the states, nor stop their importation before 1808; that all they could do was to provide for the return of fugitive slaves, and forbid citizens of the United States to engage in the slave trade of foreign countries. To drive Congress from this position was impossible, and the movement toward abolition took the form of an attack on the African slavers.

The friends of the negro promptly called on Congress to exercise the power it had so carefully defined, and in 1794 obtained the passage of a law for the suppression of the foreign slave trade. Thenceforth no citizen of the United States and no foreigner was to be suffered to use our ports for building or equipping ships for the purpose of carrying black men from Africa to foreign countries. But the law was not obeyed and the trade went on openly. Vessels whose construction made clear the purpose for which they were intended were built in our ports and loaded with manacles and steered for the West Indies where, taking on a cargo of rum, they would raise the Danish flag and sail for Africa.

So bold and defiant did the slavers become that in 1800 Congress was forced to amend the law, make it yet more stringent, and authorize vessels bearing commissions from the United States to seize any ship found violating it, and make a prize of her.

Over the domestic slave trade Congress had as yet no power. The states were free to do as they pleased, and with one accord had forbidden the importation of negroes. But these laws were as difficult of execution as the federal law. They were broken daily and with impunity. The sentiment of the people in the slave-owning states was against them, and in 1803 South Carolina confessing that she could not enforce hers wiped it from the statute-book.

Hard upon the repeal came the purchase of Louisiana, and the two events produced in 1804 such a revival of the antislavery feeling as the country had not witnessed for twenty years. North Carolina, horrified at the rush of slavers into the port of Charleston, cried out for an amendment to the Federal Constitution and sent to the state legislatures a resolution proposing one giving Congress power to prohibit the importation of slaves from Africa, from the West Indies, from any part of the world. Massachusetts heartily

approved, bade her senators and representatives move such an amendment as North Carolina proposed, and sent to each state another designed to limit representation in future to freemen.

When the delegates to the American convention for promoting the abolition of slavery met at Philadelphia, they too expressed alarm at the consequences of the purchase of Louisiana, and petitioned Congress to exclude slavery from the territory west of the Mississippi, just as a previous Congress had shut it out from the territory northwest of the Ohio.

Little heed was given to the petition. Yet it was a document of much significance, for it formally announced the beginning of a struggle that ended with the Civil War; the struggle for the restriction of slavery to the limits which then confined it, and its exclusion from the territory beyond the Mississippi. In 1804 the character of every foot of soil east of the Mississippi was determined. Every state from Massachusetts (which then owned Maine) to the south boundary of Pennsylvania was free soil. The ordinance of 1787 had forbidden the further introduction of slavery into the region bounded by the Ohio River, Pennsylvania, the Lakes, and the Mississippi. Kentucky had been admitted as a slave state. Tennessee had been ceded to the United States by North Carolina on the express condition that it should remain slave soil, and was a slave state. What is now Alabama and Mississippi, as far south as 31° north latitude, was a slave territory. Florida and all territory south of 31° from the Mississippi to the Atlantic save the island of New Orleans belonged to Spain. Along the Atlantic coast the slave states extended from Delaware to Georgia.

The territory whose character was yet to be determined was therefore the Louisiana purchase west of the Mississippi River. So much of it as now forms the state of Louisiana had been given over to slavery by the treaty of purchase and was admitted into the Union as a slave state in 1812. The contest for the rest began six years later, when the people living at St. Louis and along the valley of the Missouri River applied to Congress for leave to form a state constitution in order that the territory on which they dwelt might come into the Union as a state.

The House of Representatives in 1819 proceeded to consider a bill authorizing the

formation of a constitution and setting bounds to the proposed new state, when an amendment was moved that by her constitution Missouri must become a free state.

Then began in serious earnest a contest for the exclusion of slavery from the western territory which shook the country. Never before had the antislavery feeling been so roused. Public meetings were held, addresses were made, resolutions were passed, and petitions and memorials sent by scores to Congress. The legislatures of seven states declared against extending slavery across the Mississippi. The result was the compromise of 1820, by which the compromise line of 36° 30' was drawn across the Louisiana purchase from the Mississippi River to the 100th Meridian, which then made part of our western boundary. All north of this except the state of Missouri was to be forever free soil. What should be the character of the territory south of the line was not expressly stated; but it was, of course, together with Missouri, made slave soil.

The success of the pro-slavery men in the struggle for Missouri encouraged them to make a last and desperate effort to fasten the institution in Illinois. They failed. But the excitement they aroused did not a little to keep alive the antislavery sentiment awakened by the Missouri Compromise. Before another decade ended this sentiment had produced what had never before existed—an antislavery press and an antislavery pulpit—and had vastly increased the number of antislavery societies and leaders. Forty-three newspapers published from time to time articles hostile to slavery. Twelve others had been established for the sole purpose of attacking it.

As thus set forth, the wishes and hopes of the friends of the negro then were:

1. No more slave states, no more slave territories.
2. Instant abolition in the District of Columbia.
3. Gradual emancipation in the slave states with compensation to the owners.

Nor did these hopes seem by any means groundless. In 1824 slavery was shut out of Illinois forever by popular vote. Between 1824 and 1827 Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey each passed resolutions in favor of abolition by Congressional legislation, and each expressed a willingness to bear her share of the cost of paying the masters. Between

1827 and 1830 New York changed her law for gradual, to a law for total, abolition; Pennsylvania instructed her senators to do all they could to secure the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. The Assembly of New York followed her example, and the House of Representatives bade the committee of the District inquire into the expediency of such a measure.

The two sections of the country may be said to have then exchanged places. Up to this time the antislavery societies had been numerous and active in the South, and few and languid in the North. After this time they died out rapidly in the South and multiplied and became aggressive in the North. Their decline in the South is to be ascribed to a widespread belief that Southern interests could not be safe under Northern rule, that self-preservation required at least control of the Senate; that to obtain this control there must be more slave states; that to get more slave states Texas must be annexed, and to the persistent efforts of Jackson to buy it. The activity in the North is to be ascribed to the encouragement afforded by the bright prospects of antislavery during the administration of Adams, to the fear that Texas would be annexed, to the formation of the American Anti-Slavery Society, to the rise of the abolitionists, the publication of *The Liberator*, and the work of William Lloyd Garrison.

This radical change of view on the subject of slavery was followed by a radical change in the method of work by the abolitionists. Prior to 1830 the work of emancipation had been carried on by Humane Societies, by Manumission Societies, by Emancipation Societies, by African Protective Societies, organized in the Southern states by Southern men and women. Of one hundred and forty-four such societies existing in 1826 one hundred and six were south of the Potomac and the Ohio. After 1830 every one of them expired and the work of emancipation was carried on by societies organized in the Northern states by Northern men and women. Some were local. Some were state societies. One, the American Anti-Slavery Society, was designed to be national.

The peaceful, persuasive, philanthropic methods of the early manumission societies were now abandoned; violent and abusive language took their places. In the eyes of the followers of Garrison the slaveowner was not

a man to be reasoned with. He was a criminal, a man-stealer, an oppressor, and a pirate. In a little while the whole South was flooded with antislavery leaflets, pamphlets, newspapers filled with abusive writing and illustrated with inflammatory cuts, and with pocket handkerchiefs stamped with pictures well calculated to excite the slaves.

Enraged at this use of the mails the South struck back, and demanded that such matter be made non-mailable. At Philadelphia a package of these tracts was seized and thrown into the Delaware. At Charleston one day in July, 1835, the postmaster stopped such antislavery papers and pamphlets as were passing through the mails and the people burned them on the public square. From the legislatures of Virginia, of North Carolina, of South Carolina, of Georgia, of Alabama, came resolutions asking the non-slave-holding states to "effectually suppress" the abolition societies; to "crush the traitorous designs of the abolitionist," to "enact penal laws prohibiting the printing of such publications as have a tendency to make our slaves discontented." The call was heard and in the legislature of every free state which met during the winter of 1835 and 1836 unsuccessful efforts were made to pass laws destructive of the freedom of the press.

Meantime Congress had taken up the matter. Jackson in his message had asked for a law to prevent the use of the mails for the circulation of antislavery publications in the South. Under the lead of Calhoun the Senate quickly responded and a committee framed a bill commanding postmasters not to deliver any pamphlet, newspaper, handbill, or picture of an antislavery character, in any state where, by law of the states, the circulation of such documents was forbidden. But it failed to pass.

The supporters of the administration in the free states were ready enough to break up abolition meetings, mob abolition speakers, destroy abolition presses, pull down negro churches and schoolhouses, burn abolition halls, and go lengths which, in the case of Lovejoy, resulted in murder. They were not ready, however, to establish a censorship of the press, nor destroy liberty of speech, nor give to postmasters a right to plunder the mails.

Demand for these things caused a reaction and from that reaction sprang the Liberty party, which in 1840 put forth a long platform

and nominated James Gillespie Birney for president. The substance of that platform is that slavery was against natural rights, was strictly local, was a state institution and derived no support whatever from the authority of Congress; that the general government had no power to establish or continue slavery anywhere, and that therefore every treaty, every act establishing, continuing, or favoring it in the District of Columbia, in the territory of Florida, or on the high seas, was unconstitutional.

Seven thousand one hundred votes were cast for Birney in 1840. But the attempt to annex Texas raised this number to sixty-two thousand three hundred in 1844, which in turn was raised, by the annexation of Texas and the Mexican War, to three hundred thousand in 1848.

In 1846, while the war was still raging, Polk asked for \$2,000,000 to aid him in negotiating a peace. Well knowing the money was to be used in the purchase of land from Mexico, David Wilmot of Pennsylvania moved in the House of Representatives that in all the territory to be acquired from Mexico, slavery should be forever prohibited. This was the famous "Wilmot Proviso," and with this proviso tacked to it, the bill granting the money passed the House but not the Senate. Not discouraged Polk renewed the request at the next session of Congress. Once more a money bill was introduced into the House. Once more the Proviso was added to it, and once more the Senate struck it out. Then the House yielded and that vast region lying south of the parallel of 42° and west of the Rio Grande came to the United States with its character as to slavery or freedom wholly undetermined.

As well may be supposed the struggle for the possession of it began immediately. This struggle was intensified by the imperative need of civil government in New Mexico and Utah, by the discovery of gold in California, by the rush of men to the Pacific coast and their determination to form a constitution and seek for the admission of California into the Union as a state. The South, holding that slaves were property, demanded the right to carry them into any territory, insisted on the cessation of antislavery agitation, called for a more stringent fugitive slave act, and, standing by the compromise of 1820, asked for the organization of New Mexico as a slave territory. The North demanded the

Wilmot Proviso; the admission of California as a free state; the organization of New Mexico as a free territory; and the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. Out of these conflicting demands came the compromise of 1850.

The fruit of that ever famous measure was the admission of California as a free state; the passage of a more stringent fugitive slave act; the abolition of the slave trade, but not slavery, in the District of Columbia; and the organization of the territories of Utah and New Mexico on the basis of Popular Sovereignty. This meant the right of the people of each territory to establish or abolish slavery, as they saw fit, when they framed a state constitution. Thus was the Wilmot Proviso defeated. Thus was that immense region east of California, north of the Gila River and Texas, west of Texas and the Rocky Mountains and south of the parallel of 42°—a region now covered by Nevada, Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, more than half of Colorado and a large piece of Wyoming—opened to slavery.

With this the slaveholders ought to have been content. But they were not, and at the very next attempt to organize a territory the contest was renewed more bitterly than ever. In January, 1854, a bill was reported to the Senate for the organization of a territory to be called Nebraska. Every foot of it lay north of 36° 30', the compromise line of 1820. As it was therefore pledged to freedom, a senator from Kentucky gave notice that he would on a certain day, move that the Missouri Compromise be not applied to Nebraska. Sumner then gave notice that he would move that the Missouri Compromise be applied. The bill was instantly recalled. When again reported it cut the territory in two, named the southern half Kansas, established the principle of Popular Sovereignty, repealed the compromise of 1820, and opened both territories to slavery. Against the repeal of the compromise state legislatures, the people, the pulpit, the press, protested vigorously. But protests were in vain. The bill passed; the president signed it; and the challenge thus given by the South was instantly accepted.

In the work of saving Kansas the New England Emigrant Aid Society led the way; a score of Kansas Leagues and Kansas Aid Committees followed and hundreds of young men were soon hastening westward pledged to make Kansas a free state. The cause of slavery was chiefly defended by that lawless

ruffian element which in those days was to be found everywhere along the frontier. The story of the bloody contest that followed has often been written and is too long and too complicated to be briefly narrated. It is enough to know that in the national excitement produced by that contest the Whig party perished and the Republican party was born, that it presented John C. Fremont, its first presidential candidate, in 1856, and on election day polled 1,300,000 votes.

The inauguration of Buchanan was immediately followed by the handing down of the decision of the Supreme Court in the Dred Scott case. By that decision the right of Congress to exclude slavery from the territories was flatly denied; the compromise of 1850 was emphatically affirmed, and citizens of the United States were authorized to enter any territory with their slaves and hold them. Even Oregon, which was made free by the organizing act of 1848, now became open to slavery.

And now the slave power had run its course. The next presidential election was carried by

the Republicans; the inauguration of Mr. Lincoln was followed by the Civil War and the abolition of slavery began.

First came the territorial act of June, 1862, which declared that in the territories belonging to the United States there should henceforth be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude except in the punishment of crime whereof the party had first been duly convicted.

Next came the Emancipation Proclamation of January 1, 1863, and every slave in Virginia, in North Carolina, in South Carolina, in Georgia, in Florida, in Alabama, in Mississippi, in Louisiana (save a little tract about New Orleans), in Texas, and in Arkansas became free. As the proclamation was a war measure it had no force in the six slave states that were not in the rebellion. In four of them—Missouri, Tennessee, West Virginia, and Maryland—the slaves were freed by state legislation. In two—Delaware and Kentucky—the negroes were released from bondage by the 13th Amendment to the Federal Constitution, which completed and made final the work of emancipation.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

In a personal letter recently received, Professor Henry Drummond called my attention to a new and delightful book entitled "Jesus the Carpenter of Nazareth," by an author who signs himself a Layman, and urged me to read it. For simplicity, graphic skill, and poetic charm this volume will commend itself to all lovers of good English and to all who delight in that Miracle of the Ages, the Lord Jesus Christ. Our readings for April and May will be taken from this admirable volume.*—*John H. Vincent.*

[April 3.]

KING Herod and the Children.—King Herod looked out from his palace windows, looking for the return of the wise men; and as day after day went past and they did not come, he grew impatient.

*The preface of the book reads as follows:

This life is written in short realistic pictures, endeavoring to avoid theology and sectarianism, that mothers of all creeds may read it to their children, and that children in later life may read it for themselves. Two points are dwelt on, which are common to all the churches—the beauty of the life of Jesus and the personal contact of the Spirit; beyond that lie the dividing walls of creeds and dogmas. Amid the present day questionings of beliefs

Sending to Bethlehem, he found that they had left for their own country some days ago, and this made him very angry. A week had gone by, a precious week, for by that time Jesus and his mother were safe in Egypt. Had the king sent soldiers with the wise men, he might have taken Jesus; but by trying to deceive them, and waiting for their return, he provided the very delay which favored His escape.

writings, and authorities, and the ever broadening of common charity, it is well that our children should begin with Christianity as Jesus left it, that they may be enabled to judge for themselves how much of the sectarian structures of the succeeding ages they need regard as essential to religion, and how much as only optional. A cathedral is a good place to worship in, but some prefer the open field. A simpler Christianity is urgently wanted. The hope of the future is in the young; and there is no better way to make good men and women than by early training them to look to the highest Example that they can follow, feeding their minds with the heroism of His gentle deeds, their hearts with the tenderness of His love, their spirits with the purity of His truth, until they deeply realize that in Divine Manhood, Jesus, the Carpenter of Nazareth, amid the scenery of Galilee, walked in very truth the path of life before them, through cloud and sunshine, in joy and sorrow, at once their Hope and their Guide.

King Herod was the most cruel king that ever reigned in Jerusalem, killing every one whom he suspected, even his own three sons and his beautiful wife Mariamne; and when he found that he had been slighted and befooled by the wise men, he resolved to do a horrible thing, to slay little Jesus; and in order to make certain that He should not escape, he formed this cruel plan. The wise men had told him that the young Christ was not yet six months old. They might be wrong, however, and to satisfy his rage, the king resolved to kill every baby boy in Bethlehem, or near it, who was two years old or under that age.

Calling the captain of his guard, he commanded him to send soldiers at once to Bethlehem to do this dreadful thing; and if a single child escaped, the captain would pay for it with his own life. The stern officer, in his rich dress and burnished armor, had received many dreadful commands from this feeble king of seventy years of age, but never a command so cruel as this; and bowing low, he retired, perhaps considering as he went whether he would not give up his office rather than obey such a wicked order. But going to an officer under him, he told him the king's command, and bade him take a small band of soldiers and carry it out at once.

The soldiers marched out from the king's palace and its lovely gardens, down into the town and out through the city gate into the quiet country road, and over the hills to Bethlehem, the sun glancing yellow on their brass-crested helmets, and flashing blue from their short sharp swords, their tread raising a cloud of dust behind them. As they neared Bethlehem, the officer told them the command of the king, that they were to go into every house and slay every baby boy who was two years old or under, sparing none.

The soldiers were filled with disgust. Had they armed themselves with breastplate, shield, and spear to slay babes? And some who had little lisping children of their own, felt inclined to fling down their swords and leave the king's army, rather than obey such a cruel order, and let old King Herod come and slay the sweet babes himself. An awful thing about soldiers is that they are trained to obey and not to think whether the thing they are told to do is right or wrong; until they get to think it is right and noble to obey any and every order, and slay or spare, just

as they are told. This is called military discipline; and these poor men thought that they were somehow doing their duty. Soon the streets were ringing with the cries of mothers running to and fro, thinking that their children were all to be slain, as the grim soldiers went from house to house, sword in hand; and peaceful Bethlehem, which that morning had smiled with sunshine on its doors, was suddenly filled with gloom and mourning.

It is all over. Forming their band again, the sullen soldiers marched rapidly away from the sorrowing village, cursing their king and blaming him for what they had done, back to the crowded town and the splendid palace. And the officer went up the white stairs into the king's presence.

In answer to his stern question the officer replied that he had executed his commands. Had any escaped? "No, not one." The king felt relieved, satisfied, almost happy; and as he signed to the officer to go away, a grim smile passed over his white face, for he thought that he had defeated the wise men, put an end to another danger, and even foiled the purposes of God, by killing the Christ in infancy. And perhaps the murder of these innocents gave him a little quiet sleep that night.

[April 10.]

The Return to Nazareth.—Jesus was about a year in Egypt. And month after month went joyfully past in that little cottage home. But it was different in King Herod's splendid palace.

Attacked by a terrible disease, the old king could not get any sleep. Death came slowly and with great pain in a magnificent palace which he had built in Jericho. Messengers came and went with hushed steps, for the whole land was waiting, was wishing for his death. One April morning it was whispered in his chamber, whispered through the palace, and carried out into the street that the king was dead; and every one said it was good news, for he was hated, although he had reigned thirty-seven years and built the Golden Temple.

King Herod dead! The news was brought by merchants into Egypt. It would soon be safe for them to return home; and one night Joseph had another dream. Again an angel seemed to stand beside him and say:

"Rise, and take the young child and his

mother, and return to thine own country ; for they are dead who sought His life," and the angel departed, and Joseph told his dream to Mary ; and they were glad of the king's death.

They did not need to hurry. Joseph would sell all the things they could not carry back with them to Bethlehem, and saddling their ass, and bidding farewell to the people who had been kind to them, they started for home, never to return to Egypt.

In a week's time they were within sight of the brown and white hills of Hebron ; in a day or two more they hoped to be in Bethlehem ; and everywhere they were told that King Herod was dead, and that Archelaus, his son, was now king. But they also heard that he had already slain a great number of men, and this made Joseph afraid to go up to Bethlehem, it being so near to Jerusalem where the king lived.

Now Archelaus was king over all the country of Judea round about Jerusalem ; and although Joseph thought it was not safe to go to Bethlehem he believed that the angel meant him to go thither. But one night he dreamed again that he was not to go to Bethlehem, nor to stay anywhere in Judea ; and in the morning he decided to keep out of the country of King Archelaus, and return to their old home at Nazareth, in Galilee, which belonged to another king called Antipas.

Traveling on a few days more by the side of the sea, along the beautiful plains of Philistia and Sharon, they turned upward to climb the wooded Carmel hills which looked down on the rich plain of Esdrelon and across to Nazareth. In a few days they were in their own little house again. And Joseph returned to his workshop and, gathering his tools, resumed sawing, hammering, making and mending, as though he had not been absent from his bench one day during the long months that had passed, for he did not intend to leave Nazareth again. A happy life seemed opening before them and their bright little child, among green encircling hills that sheltered them and seemed to shut out the lower world, its kings and soldiers.

And thou wilt remember why Jesus was taken thither, for He lived so long in Nazareth after this, that people said He was born there and not in Bethlehem ; but He was indeed a little boy able to walk and talk, and pluck wild flowers when He first came to Nazareth.

[April 17]

Childhood in Nazareth.—To His mother, every month made a difference in her beautiful boy. When He was six years of age, He went with His father to the village church, and heard the solemn prayers, and reading, and singing on Sabbaths and on Thursdays ; and then he went to school, to sit with other little boys in a ring upon the floor, and repeat Bible verses after the teacher, until He knew them off by heart. But He learnt far more in the open fields, for there the clouds, stars, wind, flowers, trees, all taught Him lessons.

His brothers were called James, Josés, Jude, and Simon, but his sisters' names are not known ; and with them and His cousins, James and John, and the other village children, He would run races on the grass, and play games round the houses. He was a thorough child, who could tumble on the green at sundown with His companions, and gather in a group with them and chatter till bedtime, as only children do. His school lessons were no easier to Him than to other children. He grew tired with running, and others could run as fast as He ; but He was always happy,—a perfect child.

As a boy he was obedient to his father and mother, and never grieved to do what they told Him. Happy years ! Perhaps the happiest of His life, when all the world seemed beautiful and good, and taught him so much ; His father was so wise, His mother so loving, looking at Him with eyes so gentle and so sad, that He had to run to her side and ask if He had grieved her. But great thoughts began to rise in His young mind, and doubts as to whether all the world was so happy as He thought ; and why his little brothers could at times be disobedient, and wilful, and angry ; and why some children had so much pain, and some looked so old and sad. And when these thoughts like clouds passed over His clear mind, He would ask His father about them but could not understand his answers ; His mother seemed to know better what He wanted. Who was His Father in Heaven, to whom she bade Him pray ? Could He see Him ? Could He hear Him ? And yet every time He prayed He was happier, and felt sure that His Father in Heaven was watching Him and helping Him to think and to understand. And so the years fled past, and from a tottering child He grew to be a tall, thoughtful, dark-eyed boy.

[April 24].

His First Visit to Jerusalem.—Many summers and winters had come and gone with their flowers and their snows around Nazareth, and the boy Jesus was nearing manhood. He was now twelve years of age, tall, strong, beautiful, for boys grow up much sooner in that country than in England; and He was said to be old enough now to read the Bible for Himself, and to be called a "son of the Law." The phylacteries, which are little parchment boxes full of verses of the Bible, had been tied upon His left arm and brow in the village church, as a sign that He was of age to think for Himself, and to go to the great religious festivals at Jerusalem.

It was April, and the great seven days' festival called the Passover was near, to which everybody should go, and for the first time Jesus was to go, with His father and mother, away beyond hills, with crowds of people, to the great city—a memorable event to a boy. Everywhere the people had been preparing for it for weeks past, sorting the roads, mending the bridges, and making new clothes and sandals, and cutting fresh sticks, for it was the most joyous festival of the year. With much stir, the company from Nazareth, all in their bright holiday dresses, got ready their horses, camels, and asses, for some one went from every house; and in the early morning, Mary riding on the ass, and Jesus, stick in hand, walking joyfully by His father's side, they started, winding down the broad highland valley, with green fields spreading away, and the bright spring wild flowers nodding in the breeze by the roadside; while from the thick hedges came the song of birds. Resting at noonday under green trees, in the afternoon they started refreshed, and traveled until evening, when white tents were put up and the evening meal prepared. Tired with walking, Jesus was soon asleep, but with the first light of day the march was resumed; and as they went along the great public roads, they were joined by bands of people from other villages, all marching to the same festival at Jerusalem.

The fourth day was the greatest of all, for then they came within sight of Jerusalem. Having toiled up the wild, hot, rugged road from Jericho, they climbed the Mount of Olives. Suddenly the great city in all its magnificence appeared, like a dream before them. There stood the great thick walls, with their square towers of defense; there the

marble palaces of kings, priests, and governors; there the forts and castles for soldiers. But the sun shone most brightly on the Temple, which was on the side of the city nearest to Jesus, like a mighty cathedral on a wall of white, built up from the ravine below—colonnades, cloisters, porches, pillars, arches, and outer buildings all of white marble; while within the great open square stood the Holy Place, terrace rising above terrace in white and gold, and high above all was the roof of bright gold reflecting the sun. With a shout, the company from Nazareth burst into a joyous song, waving green branches as they came over the hill, Jesus singing with the rest, for truly this was the most glorious sight the boy had ever seen. And he gazed at it as they descended the hillside, toward the bridge across the Kedron, near to which green slope of Olivet the people from Galilee pitched their tents for the night, for they did not intend to live in the city, which was already crowded with people.

In the morning, as soon as the silver trumpets of priests sounded from Mount Moriah, His father and mother took Jesus into the city, through the streets, and up to the Temple, pointing out to Him its great brass and silver doors and colored marble pillars as they entered, and in the inner court, the altars and sacrifices; while His father told Him what the hundreds of white-robed priests and Levites were doing, and why a magnificent colored curtain hung over the door of the holy place, up to which none but the priests might go. Among the pillars in the great outer porches, He saw the aged teachers sitting, with people standing round them listening to them as they taught and answered questions. Day after day the boy Jesus went up to these courts crowded with gaily dressed people from all parts of the country, and took part in the responses and singing, and listened eagerly to the old doctors of the law, teaching from the Bible, for they were the greatest teachers in the land, and soon He would have to go back to quiet Nazareth again. He would meet his cousin John there also, who, like Him, would be old enough to come to his first festival.

Every day brought something new of which he had often heard. The great Temple court was hung with beautiful mats and carpets of all colors, and on the first day of the festival, the greatest day of all, at a signal given by the blowing of rams' horns, He saw lambs

being slain in thousands upon the colored pavement of the Priests' Court, and their blood poured from golden bowls at the foot of the high stone altar. And on that first night He ate the Passover supper of bitter herbs and roasted lamb, and drank the wine and water, and chanted the solemn psalms at His father's side as He had often done before.

On the second day of the festival He saw the first sheaf of barley cut on the other side of the Kedron and carried in triumph into the city amid the shouts of the people, to be threshed and ground into flour and presented as an offering of first fruits in the Temple.

The third day was a Sabbath of rest and quiet, with splendid Temple services from singing choirs and instruments; but the fourth, fifth, and sixth days were days of rejoicing, dancing, singing, feasting, buying, selling, and seeing friends, on which days those who had come from a distance began to leave Jerusalem and go home again.

The seventh and last day of the festival was also kept as a Sabbath, although most of the country people had left by that time. But every day He was in Jerusalem, and went to hear the old teachers in the Temple, for what they said was more to Him than all the priests and sacrifices and singing.

PHYSICAL CULTURE.

BY J. M. BUCKLEY, LL.D.

III.

HEAVY GYMNASTICS.

BEFORE the invention of gunpowder, physical strength, activity, and courage determined national existence. That empire, republic, tribe, clan, or village was secure in proportion to the number of men it contained capable of meeting the most powerful assaults, and of inflicting them upon their foes. Greece, in the history of the different small states into which it was divided, illustrates this fact. Among savages the warrior who could draw the longest and strongest bow, wield the heaviest club or tomahawk, and endure the greatest exposure was successful. In the more systematic conflicts of half civilized or civilized nations, those that could wear the weightiest armor, wield the broadest swords, and hurl the heaviest missiles prevailed. No wonder then that antiquity made of physical strength a "veritable god." All nations appear to have practiced such exercises, and Dr. H. A. Husband of England says that "the exercises of barbarians and of the most civilized nations were the same: running, leaping, swimming, and throwing of missiles"; that the Greeks first reduced them to a system; that the Romans enforced exercises upon their soldiers, that in the middle ages "chivalry with its jousts, feats of horsemanship, fencing, etc., filled the same place."

Then came a long period in which physical education was neglected, occasioning a D-Apr.

marked deterioration of strength, except among the classes subsisting by manual labor.

About eighty years ago special attention began to be given to the subject. The Encyclopædia Britannica states that gymnastic instruction was formally recognized in Persia by a cabinet order in June, 1842; in Sweden in 1813 the government founded the Royal Central Gymnastic Institute at Stockholm. Attention was first paid to the subject in France in 1845, but compulsory gymnastic training was not enforced until 1869. The first attempt to introduce it into England was as late as 1862; and not very much was done in this country before that time.

Great impetus has been given to the subject within the past twenty years, until now a gymnasium is considered as important to academies, colleges, and universities as any other department building. Institutions of various degrees of excellence are connected with the leading women's colleges, notably the Woman's College of Baltimore, which, being the newest, is, according to Professor Herbert Adams of Johns Hopkins, the best equipped.

Of course there are numerous theories of heavy gymnastics, and powerful and influential advocates of these. Several of the leading professors have attained eminence, and are undoubtedly to be regarded as genuinely scientific professors of physical culture. Without expounding or espousing any theory

or philosophizing upon an ideal gymnasium, I aim to describe different methods of indoor exercises, interspersing hints as to their advantages, dangers, and methods; keeping in view the person who must arrange his own exercises, rather than the student under special instruction.

The highest authority in England is Archibald MacLaren, who has arranged a system of exercises which he divides into four parts which he calls "Introductory Exercises, Exercises of Progression, Elementary Exercises, and Climbing." It is the most elaborate work within my knowledge, and the evidence of its harmony with the physical nature of man is in the success attained, as well as in the discretion which marks his incidental directions to pupils. The introductory exercises consist of movements and positions, and require the use of the dumb-bells and barbells. The exercises of progression consist of "walking, running, leaping: and the leaping rope, the leaping pole, the horizontal beam, the vaulting bar, and the vaulting horse are used. The elementary exercises require the fixed parallel bars, the movable parallel bars, the trapeze, the pair of rings, the row of rings, the elastic ladder, the horizontal bar, the bridge ladder, the plank, the ladder plank, the inclined ladder, the prepared wall (embracing the holes, the blocks, the grooves). In climbing, the student makes use of the vertical pole, the vertical pole fixed, the slanting pole, the turning pole, the pair of vertical poles, the pair of slanting poles, the vertical rope, the rosary, or knotted rope, the mast."

It is clear that all these cannot be used by a private gymnast unless he has access to a public gymnasium; nor is it necessary that they should be. The dumb-bells and Indian clubs, a system of chest weights, an elastic rubber band, and a bar which can be fitted in any closet, will furnish all the materials necessary for the exercise of the different muscles of the body, supplementary to that obtained by walking and the ordinary motions which are made even in the most sedentary pursuits. The young man who has had the advantages of a gymnasium in his college course should select a few of the exercises best adapted to his wants, and faithfully practice them in his own apartments or home as long as he lives.

A comparatively small amount of practice is sufficient to develop great strength in any

special muscle, and to retain it. Professor Austin Flint, Jr., M.D., in his "Source of Muscular Power" says:

"It is surprising how short a period of vigorous exercise daily, will develop an approach to the maximum of muscular power. At the age of forty years, and weighing one hundred and eighty-three and three quarters pounds without clothing, I myself accomplished the feat of rising with one hand above my head, and standing erect with the arm straight under a dumb-bell weighing one hundred and eighty and one half pounds. This was done by exercising about half an hour daily for six days in the week, paying no special attention to the diet. The course of training for this special feat of strength was continued for about five months; at the beginning of the five months I could easily put up a dumb-bell weighing a hundred and sixty-five pounds. I never trained specially for any feat of endurance when attention to diet would probably have become necessary. I believe that one hour a day of vigorous exercise with proper attention to diet will efficiently train a well-formed and healthy man for any reasonable feat of strength and endurance."

This shows Professor Flint to be naturally a man of extraordinary physical strength. No conclusion can be drawn from such a case except that a moderate amount of exercise is sufficient to produce and maintain the greatest strength of which a person is capable.

Dumb-bells used for purposes of exercise may be heavy or light and so may Indian clubs. The former are less likely if misused to injure the body than the latter. He who has never employed either for gymnastic purposes should begin with great care and determine for himself how far to go. The varieties of movements which the clubs or bells allow, and the fine effect they produce, can be ascertained only by practice.

The dumb-bell was used in England in the time of Queen Elizabeth, and is described in the *Spectator*. It was called "A Notable Pastime" and consisted in brandishing two sticks, grasped in each hand. "This pastime expands the chest, exercises the limbs, gives a man all the pleasure of boxing, without the blows." In former times heavy dumb-bells were used for ordinary exercises, running up to eight and even twenty pounds; but it seems to be the opinion of most experts that equally good results are to be obtained by the use of lighter bells. I am inclined to think that the use of bells not weighing over three pounds

is preferable for most exercises; but that the occasional use for a few movements of heavier bells has some decided advantages. Blakie recommends beginning with dumb-bells weighing not more than one twenty-fifth of what he or she who uses them weighs, and gradually substituting larger ones until they reach say one tenth of his or her weight. I should think this "heavy gymnastics" from the beginning.

Simon D. Kehoe, famous as a gymnast and an authority on Indian clubs, gives this rule for ascertaining the proper weight: "As a general rule the proper weight may be ascertained by holding a pair horizontally at the side at arm's length, letting them down to a perpendicular and raising them again several times, grasping them at the extremity of the handles. If this cannot be done after several trials, the club is too heavy." He also says that it is an almost universal mistake, trying to use clubs that are too heavy, and suggests that from six to ten pounds is a sufficient weight to start with. I found five pounds heavy enough. The use of clubs when they pass three pounds in weight I class among heavy gymnastics; not for athletes by any means, but for persons who would value any suggestions of mine. They certainly exercise all the known muscles above the loins, and reveal to one who has never used them the existence of some of which he could learn only from books. These remarks in general apply to dumb-bells. From any work on physical training, such as Maclaren's "Physical Education," Blakie's "How to Get Strong," etc., a scheme of exercises can be obtained. But it is better to take a few lessons from a good teacher to learn how to perform the exercises, for otherwise, bad attitudes and movements may be contracted.

Parallel bars and the horizontal bar placed in the attic of a house admit of a combination of exercises as well adapted to maintain a high degree of strength as any that can be imagined.

Some rough country rowdies attempted to chastise a minister for remarks that he had made in a sermon concerning their misdeeds. He was pale, slight in figure, and, though quite tall, did not weigh more than a hundred and sixty pounds. As he was struck by the first of these men he said, "Do you really know what you are doing?" With that two of them laughed derisively and sprang upon him. Without difficulty he knocked them

down, and when they arose and advanced again they met the same fate, and soon fled ignominiously. The minister was asked where he kept his strength, and replied, "In the attic"; in further explanation saying that he had been in the habit of practicing twenty minutes a day on the parallel bars, the horizontal bar, and the trapeze merely for exercise, but had never thought that it would save him from serious injury.

Swinging upon the bar previously referred to, placed near the top of a closet door or in any other convenient place, comes under the head of heavy gymnastics as it involves sustaining the weight of the body with the hands. This is one of the best exercises for keeping up the general strength of the system; and if there be no organic heart trouble it can be increased by raising the body to the chin and lowering it several times each day. Such swinging is recommended by one of the noted physicians of this country as almost infallible specific against inactivity of the lower alimentary canal.

No invention had a more rapid rise into popularity than the health lift, of none were more enthusiastic recommendations written and published over the names of well-known men in every profession. Nor is there any reason to doubt that those who had not been in the habit of taking exercise, derived considerable benefit from a few minutes' daily practice with some of the various machines put upon the market. When, however, the advocates of the health lift began to commend it because of the economy of time, affirming that a person could get more exercise in ten minutes with it than he could by riding horseback or walking two or three hours, a suspicion arose in many minds that such a use of it was an attempt to cheat nature out of its proper tribute from every organized being.

An acquaintance of mine was infatuated with this economical substitute, and gradually increased in strength until he was able to lift five hundred and ninety-five pounds of cast iron. Though he proceeded with great care, after a time two serious evil results threatening to become organic were experienced. A cessation and resumption of the practice demonstrated it to be the cause of the symptoms, which were spasmodic pains in the heart and a hemorrhoidal affection.

Mr. Blakie gives his experience for six months, and affirms that "there was an un-

questionable stiffening of the back, a very noticeable and abnormal development of three sets of muscles." He says that he has known it to make one very stiff and ungainly in movement, and considers it a very questionable exercise for those to whom it is so highly recommended, the sedentary, and even worse for those who stand at desks all day.

As a substitute for outdoor exercise, I consider it pernicious. Used in moderation as a supplement to such exercise, it may be helpful. So far as I can ascertain, many of those who gave such glowing testimonials have long since ceased the use of the machine. It appears to me to violate one of the fundamental principles of exercise for persons in middle or later life, namely, diffusion of moderate efforts during a long space of time, as distinguished from concentrated and brief efforts adapted only to the period of youth.

Fencing is an exercise well adapted to members of one family, or students rooming together, club men, clerks, and others who have the opportunity of exercise when together. No exercise has been more generally commended by writers upon hygiene and by medical men, for the purpose of developing and cultivating bodily strength and activity. "The Theory and Practice of Fencing" declares that "by it the muscles of every part of the body are brought into play. It expands the chest, and causes an equal distribution of the blood and other circulating fluids through the whole system." It has been particularly recommended to public speakers, because it imparts an ease and freedom of gesture obtainable by no other exercise.

In olden times it was an instrument of dueling, and on the continent of Europe it is still considered a gentlemanly accomplishment. Its advantages for purposes of physical culture are that it is absorbing and interesting, requires great quickness of mind, rapidity of glance, and without compelling constant heavy exercise, demands it from time to time in the course of the friendly conflicts; and it is without doubt unusually adapted to counteract the natural effects of a sedentary life. Thirty years ago it was comparatively fashionable in this country, but since the elevation of physical culture to a science, it has gone out of vogue. I think it would be a useful addition to most gymnasiums. The liability to accidents is reduced almost to

nothing by the use of swords too dull to do much damage.

Boxing was added to the Greek games in the twenty-third Olympiad, and it was done then much as it is now. This is a magnificent exercise, unfortunately degraded by low associations. Indeed up to 1866 it was decidedly disreputable even in England by reason of its close connection with amateur and professional prize fighting. At that date a respectable amateur athletic club was founded by which a system of rules was formulated, and the practice has since become more popular.

It is one of the very best exercises, and the advantage of understanding its principles may be great in some critical emergency of life. The number of instances in which men who understood their own powers have been able to rescue women from insult, to protect honest men from mobs or from abuse by drunken persons, or defend themselves from assault, are in the aggregate large.

A most reputable judge is in the habit of beguiling the tediousness of terms of court by evening practice in boxing with one of his colleagues. Like fencing, it has the advantage and disadvantage of requiring a partner. Its place is in the gymnasium or in private life. Unfortunately when young men take an interest in any art, they are quite likely to follow wherever it leads; and in desiring to see it at its best in point of proficiency, boxing has led many students to exhibitions immoral and disgraceful.

Some years ago quite a number of young men were captured among the spectators at a prize fight. One among them was supposed to be so far removed from all interest in such things that an attempt was made to ascertain what led him into company of the kind, and it appeared that he had determined to make himself a perfect amateur boxer, and had gone to the prize fight in the hope of getting some points.

In concluding this paper on heavy gymnastics I will mention one form of exercise combining healthfulness and simplicity with utility. That philosophical humorist whose *nom de plume* was Josh Billings, threw the whole weight of his influence against it in this forcible advice: "Young man, take exercise, but don't saw wood unless you have to." The sawing and splitting of wood, having some purpose in view, such as providing the family with kindling, is one of the best

exercises, and in itself sufficient, in addition to a suitable amount of walking, to preserve health and strength. A half hour a day of this kind of work diverts the mind from its natural pursuits by the attention required to prevent accident, exercises the muscles of the back and loins, as well as the flexors and extensors of the arms. Splitting is an exercise of an entirely different kind from sawing, involving concentration, rapidity, and vigor of stroke.

An invention has been made to do away with the chief objection to wood-sawing as an exercise. It must be admitted that an ordinary sawhorse, which places the stick at about eighteen inches from the ground, and requires the sawer to put his foot upon it,

throws the system into a position that interferes with the circulation of the blood and with respiration, and is more likely to promote than to cure headache. The invention referred to is a sawhorse fastened to the floor, and having a trough into which the stick is put and held down by clamps, at a sufficient height to admit of the workman's standing erect as he saws. After a piece is sawed off, the clamps must be adjusted and the stick moved forward. This is sufficient to rest the muscles of the arms. I have made use of this invention for some years, and find the exercise strengthening; and there is just sufficient stimulus in the keeping of barrels filled with kindling to hallucinate one into the belief that he "has not lived in vain."

DEVELOPMENT OF OUR INDUSTRIES THROUGH PATENTS.

BY HELEN FRANCES SHEDD.

THE United States Patent Office is one of the most important and probably one of the most unappreciated branches of the public service. It directly or indirectly deals with interests which affect at least nine tenths of our people, and is more closely related to the commercial, agricultural, and mechanical world than any other department of the government. Invention is the moving force of nations and countries. Especially is this true of our own country, where inventive progress has made its most brilliant achievements. The United States holds the exceptional position of creating and continuing the best and most successful patent system in the world; of extending to its citizens the greatest security for the fruits of their toil and genius; and of being the most formidable competitor in all the markets of the world for its manufactures, founded upon patents.

The English patent system began in 1624, the French in 1791. April 10, 1790, saw the birth of the American. Patent protection is not however confined within the boundaries of these nations. All civilized countries have to-day some form of a patent system. But the marvelous and wonderful rise of the inventor in America, after a hand-to-hand struggle with poverty, raw materials, waste forests, and barren fields, has made him a recognized power in all parts of the world,

and his claim stands uncontroverted as being the largest contributor to the common stock of knowledge.

It is unnecessary to refer at length to the history of our patent system. The original act of 1790 was the inspiration of Thomas Jefferson, and its success was at all times of active interest to him. It is related that he considered in person every application for a patent filed from the enactment of the law to the time of its first amendment in 1793. Upon the reception of an application he would summon the examining board together, consisting of Henry Knox of Massachusetts, secretary of war, Edward Randolph of Virginia, attorney general, and himself, the secretary of state, and these "experts" would critically examine into and pass judgment upon the patentability of the invention. Perhaps they were not overliberal to the inventor, for three patents only were granted during the first year and but forty-four during the first three years.

The cost of obtaining letters patent was not extortionate, the schedule of fees being:

Receiving and filing the petition	\$.50
Filing specification, per sheet of 100 words, .	.10
Making out the patent	2.00
Affixing the seal	1.00
Delivering the patent to the patentee20

Several amendatory statutes were enacted

by Congress, but that of July 4, 1836, effected the entire reorganization of the American Patent System—that gauge of civilization—and established the present United States Patent Office—that great repository of human ingenuity. Excepting slight modifications, rendered necessary by experience and trial, the provisions of the act of 1836 remain substantially the law of to-day.

Prior to this act 9,957 patents were granted. The present series of applications originated in 1836, and during the first fifty years 372,215 patents were granted. The total number of applications filed from 1840 to January 1, 1892, was 787,500.

Argument seems idle to measure the development and progress wrought in the short span of years thus represented, by the exercise of intellectual ingenuity acting under the stimulating influence of wise legislation. It cannot be seriously questioned that the classes most directly benefited are to be found among the actual toilers of our land. The demand for means to accomplish certain things better, more cheaply, with increased profit and decreased expenditure of human effort, has come from the men whose muscles have been strained from early dawn to deepening shades of night, broadcasting seed by hand, raking and binding meager crops, picking cotton from the plant, separating fibers from the seed, swinging the flail, all by nature's own handicraft; from women suffering under the grind of want and continuous denial of necessities, bent over looms or overtaxed with household drudgery; from the machine shops, whose operators grow weary wielding, to the full maximum of strength, ponderous and crude implements, with slow and minimum results.

In this magical age of labor-saving machinery the farmer sits upon a comfortable seat, rides over his broadening fields, and the click of the self-binder is as musical to his ears as the theme of a symphony to its composer; and he accomplishes in one day the work formerly ground out in three. The patent churns, sewing and automatic machinery, have lifted his wife and daughters from the level of drudges to the position of social and intellectual factors in the community. And the vitality and organism of the great living, breathing mechanisms, instinct with life and energy, have kindled an impulse in the mechanic which has sent seething and running through his brain infinite problems

in quest of the new and hidden, the evolutions of which have resulted in making him the creator of means for developing unknown forces and for subjugating the old, all of which have made our time richer and fuller than any preceding age.

To-day America has reason to be prouder of the citizen who has conferred upon the great body of her people such incalculable benefits, than of any other class or type; to-day her manufacturing population commands the admiration of the world, and this condition has resulted while her industries have responded to the quickening influences of foreign demand. Invention has done vastly more for the uplifting of the races, contributed more to the lightening of burdens, created more wealth, and added more to the prosperity of nations than all other sources and forces combined.

A few notable examples may be cited of inventions which have most largely aided in making our government foremost in the world, and the most conspicuous power that recognizes the inventor as the chief contributor to the unparalleled development which has pushed our young nation to the front.

The earliest impulse of man led him to reach out in search of food for his daily subsistence. Let us first consider how his ingenuity has been exerted in increasing the power of producing from the soil the material aids to his physical comfort.

There is no industry which has contributed in a greater degree to the development of our country, and in no line of invention have there been made more gigantic strides than in the machines which have enabled the farmer to cultivate the lands of his heritage, as well as to open up the wildernesses of the west, and to bring under cultivation the millions of acres now rich with waving grain each successive season. The harvester of to-day is the outcome of a hundred years of gradual growth, due to the genius of a hundred minds.

The earliest machinery originated in England, but public opinion opposed its adoption. Instances are numerous where the ignorant peasantry, imagining that they would be thrown out of employment, rose up and destroyed the machines and compelled inventors by threats to desist from their efforts. To our countrymen belongs the honor of producing the first practical machines and

of bringing them into general use. Sixty years ago the principal implements used for planting a crop were the plow, the harrow, the shovel, and the hoe; for harvesting, the scythe, rake, pitchfork, sickle, cradle, flail. Less than threescore years ago the quickest known method of separating the grain was by treading it with horses or threshing it out with a flail. Following this came the horse-power machinery, and then the steam-power thresher and separator with a daily capacity of thousands of bushels.

The first iron plow was patented by Charles Newbold, of New Jersey, on June 26, 1797. Progress was slow; prejudices were firmly grounded; as late as 1840 the farmers vigorously opposed the adoption of the iron plow because they thought "it would poison the land," and rural rioters went from farm to farm demolishing the machinery. But the inherent mechanical aptitude of the Yankee brain prevailed, coupled with plenty of pluck, and fresh impulse lifted from serfdom the art from whence we derive so largely our prosperity. The cumbersome and uncouth wooden implement, requiring half a dozen or more oxen, is within our recollection. But the hillsides called for the Reversible Plow, the great western areas for the Wheel and Gang implement, while these in turn gave way to the Wheel and Riding Cultivator. The Oliver Chilled Plow and the Syracuse Chilled Plow, capable of saving \$50,000,000 in one year on the twelve and one half millions of acres that were under the plow in 1880 in the state of New York, marked a great step forward. Broadcasting seed unevenly and wastefully by hand called into final existence the drill which plows the furrow, drops the seed, and at the same time covers it, enabling the farmer to increase his acreage in the ten days' planting season from forty to two hundred acres.

The patents of Obed Hussey of 1833 and 1847 are the foundation of the cutting apparatus used in the modern mower and harvester. He was the first to use a scalloped or toothed knife in connection with guard fingers which embraced the reciprocating knife above and below, and held the grain while it was sheared by the action of the blades. So slow was public opinion to recognize the benefits conferred that the number of reapers in 1850 barely exceeded a hundred. The improved raking apparatus followed in 1851; the self-raker was succeeded in 1858 by

devices for binding the sheaves; in 1874 the automatic wire-binding attachment came into being; the final impulse devised the cord-binder, which automatically passes a cord around each bundle, knots it, cuts the cord, and discharges the bundle at one operation.

It is estimated that a McCormick reaper wears ten years, and that each machine during its life effects a saving in labor alone of \$500. Statistics show a saving by this machine in labor of over \$36,000,000 up to the year 1859, and during the same time the increase in the grain crop amounted to \$100,000,000. McCormick devoted a quarter of a century to his various inventions prior to 1859, during which time he paid out \$1,865,278, and received as net profits over \$500,000, while his invention yielded to this country annually \$10,000,000. The reaper and mower of John H. Manny saved nearly \$30,000,000 to the farmers.

With the flail a man threshing ten bushels of grain did a good day's work; with improved machinery he can thresh hundreds of bushels a day, with less manual effort, at an expense of a few cents per bushel. The number of bushels of wheat, oats, and barley harvested in 1850 was 252,237,138; in 1880 the number was 911,339,631. To harvest the crop of 1880 by the old methods would have required the labor of 1,822,679 men; with the labor-saving machinery now in use 151,890 men would accomplish it in the same time. A crew of 67 men, with the aid of animal and steam-power on a ranch in the west, averaged 3,825 bushels per day in the harvest of 1879, being about 57 bushels per man. During the same season on another ranch 5 men with a combined harvester and thresher averaged 36 acres per day, equivalent to 154 bushels per day per man. With such facts before us it is needless to say that the enormous crops of 1889 and of the present year could not have been harvested by the old methods. We find as a result of improved appliances that the production of grain per capita has correspondingly increased. The production per head for 1889 was of corn 34 bushels; wheat 8 bushels; oats 13 bushels; and of cotton 58 pounds.

Twin brother of the struggle for food is the struggle for raiment. For what part of our apparel are we not directly indebted to inventions?

The art of machine-knitting dates back to about the year 1589, when the first machine

was invented by William A. Lee, of England. Cloth is the product of spinning and weaving, inventions of great antiquity, and many are the nations that claim the honor of their productions. Pliny says that the Egyptians put a shuttle into the hands of the Goddess Isis to signify that she was the inventor of weaving. So also with spinning, history repeats the contradictions as to the originator of the device which revolutionized the art. Credit is certainly due to James Hargreaves who made the most important of the earlier improvements.

By means of the spinning jenny, which he invented, one person could work from twenty to thirty threads. This benefactor of his race was compelled to flee his native country to escape persecution and the violence of the populace who broke his machine to pieces. The one-thread spinning wheel had been the best and most expeditious mode of spinning. In 1758 the first machine was patented in England in which a number of threads could be spun simultaneously. Before this one person could tend but one spindle and spin only one thread at a time.

The first spinning machine driven by water-power was invented by Arkwright in 1769, called the "water-frame." Crompton combined the jenny and the water-frame, and thus brought out the "mule," which was ultimately made self-acting by Richard Roberts, whose "quadrant winding motion" is one of the most ingenious mechanical movements the world has ever seen. The power-loom of Cartwright, intermittent and more or less reactionary in its movements, was the first successful loom, marking another stride forward, and giving fresh impulse to the development of labor-saving machinery.

The barriers which had so long obstructed the advance of textile manufactures were broken down. Nevertheless the industry could never have acquired its present magnitude but for the machinery which step by step has advanced the art under the fostering wing of the American patent system, distinctly the claim of the present century. On a modern spinning frame one operator can take care of eight hundred or more spindles and spin threads of an aggregate length of more than two thousand miles.

Cotton culture received an extraordinary incentive by the discovery of Eli Whitney, and he became the patentee of the most memorable patent granted under the act of 1793.

Thomas Jefferson gave personal attention to the application, and his interest in the young inventor continued through after years. Before this invention the cotton-picker separated the seeds from the lint at the rate of five pounds a day; it took nearly ninety days to separate the yield of one acre of land. With the gin the same work can be done in less than a week. With the crude invention a man could separate seventy pounds of fiber a day; by means of the later improvements the capacity of the machine has been increased to thousands of pounds a day. Every fiber that will spin can now be sorted out and saved, and the seed as well as the cotton made to yield large and lucrative returns in the hands of the manufacturer.

The utility of an invention so peculiarly adapted to the southern soil, cannot be better stated than in the words of an eminent southerner:

"The whole interior of our states was languishing; our inhabitants were emigrating for want of some object to engage their attention and employ their industry, when the invention of this machine at once opened views to them which set the whole country in active motion. From childhood to age it has presented to us a lucrative employment. Individuals who were depressed with poverty and sunken in idleness, suddenly found occupation for their hands, and have risen to wealth and prosperity."

The effect of the invention was immediately seen in the extraordinary increase of the great staple, and wonderful commercial results rapidly followed. In 1783 eight bales of cotton were seized on board of an American brig at the Liverpool Custom House, because "so much cotton could not be produced in the United States." When the gin was invented England received from America one bag in 126. Three years later she received one in 25, and at the beginning of the present century about one eighth of the importation was from our country. In 1820 two thirds of all the cotton taken into England was from the United States. At the outbreak of the civil war England was dependent upon us for seven eighths of her supply. The cotton crop of 1868-9 brought to the south a return of \$250,000,000, while in 1873-4 the value of the crop was \$312,480,000. Of the world's crop the United States produced eighty-five per cent in 1889-90.

At last a movement has been inaugurated

to recognize the genius of Whitney. A meeting was held at Augusta, Georgia, in December, 1891, for the purpose of adopting steps toward making an active canvass of the cotton manufacturing centers of this country to secure funds to erect a monument to his memory. It is proposed to unveil it at the International Cotton Exposition to be held during October and November, 1892, at Augusta.

The spinning jenny and the shuttle have been superseded at the hearthstone by the sewing machine, the animated organism which has become the indispensable helpmate of women.

September 17, 1790, patent was granted in England describing in a crude form a sewing machine to form automatically a chain stitch. This machine, although conceived at so early a day, contained many of the germs of the sewing machine of to-day. Therefore its inventor, Thomas Saint, occupies a foremost position in having so materially lightened the burdens of the human family.

Nevertheless, this machine is conceded to be pre-eminently an American invention. To our country belongs the credit of the production of the first practical sewing machine; to the enterprise and zeal of our citizens its introduction into every portion of the civilized globe; and to the business energy of our manufacturers the vast industries, employing millions of capital and thousands of human beings.

If time and space permitted us to follow the struggles of the pioneers in this field, from the first patent granted to Howe on September 10, 1846, thereafter pawned to procure money to take him to the bedside of his wife to see the flickering life go out; to relate the important advance made by the invention of Allen G. Wilson, who also in poverty sold three fourths of his entire interest for \$800, and at the same time agreed to convey without further consideration the same interest in all subsequent inventions; the improvements of Isaac M. Singer, who was first to furnish the people with a successfully operating and practical sewing machine; and the later developments by Grover and Baker, and the many others, we should still scarcely touch the tremendous efforts which made it possible for a single combination of mechanical elements to spring into the complete being it is, ready to do the stitch-forming work of the world, and to give employment to untold numbers.

Means for procuring food and clothing having been successfully achieved and brought within reach of the humblest, man's intellectual vision began to broaden and to reach out into new fields of thought. An inventor lives in the enchanted realm of the poet while his soul grasps the formless. The higher faculties so long deadened by arduous and incessant physical labors began to expand by the activities of imagination and aspiration.

The printing press was early declared to be "the great engine by which man is enabled to improve the faculties of his nature; it is the preserver of the knowledge and acquirements of former generations." The profound wisdom in which our government was founded, impressed with the importance of this great agent of civilization, when legislating for its own freedom coupled with it freedom of religion and of speech. And, again, the American inventor has been the swiftest in the race, and has outstripped all competitors. In the middle of the fifteenth century movable types were invented, but the press was not materially improved until the beginning of the nineteenth.

A fair type of the earlier machine is the press used by Benjamin Franklin, now deposited in the National Museum at Washington, and upon which he worked as a journeyman in London. Two men were required to operate it, one to ink the types and the other to put on and take off the sheets and make the impressions. Its greatest capacity was from seventy-five to one hundred and twenty-five sheets per hour.

In 1790 British patent No. 1,748 was granted to William Nicholson, in which are described the main features of two forms of the modern cylinder printing machines, each provided with an automatic ink-supply and continuous roller distribution. This patent also has the gist of the modern rotary printing machine in which the types or plates are fixed to a cylinder rotating in contact with an impression cylinder and inking rollers automatically supplied with ink. Nicholson was far in advance of his time; his invention did not go into use, and the author, editor, teacher, and inventor, died in a debtor's prison.

In 1811, Frederick Koenig, in English Patent No. 3,496 described the first cylinder machine which actually went into use. In 1814 it was put to work upon the *London Times*. That paper extolled "the magnitude of the invention," saying that its functions

were "performed with such velocity and simultaneousness of operation that no less than 1,100 sheets are impressed in one hour."

American inventions followed rapidly. August 22, 1822, Peter Force was granted a patent describing six machines in which the printing surfaces are on cylinders rotating in contact with impression cylinders. Marking an epoch in the art came the machine patented July 24, 1847, by Richard M. Hoe, of New York, No. 5,199, capable of printing an edition of 130,000 copies inside of five hours. In this machine there is a single large central cylinder carrying the type-forms, occupying about one fourth of its surface, the other three fourths of which are used as an ink-distributing plate. Around this type-cylinder are arranged a series of impression cylinders, inking cylinders, etc.—the patent shows four, but many machines were made with ten. The production of the machine is limited only by the ability of the attendants to feed in the sheets. These machines at once went into extensive use in Europe and in this country. The machine patented to William Bullock, in 1863, was the first however which was automatic throughout in its operation, including the feeding and delivery of the paper. No attendance except a general supervision of the machine was required in its operation.

In 1879, after a long contest between a number of conflicting inventors to establish priority of invention, a patent was granted to Luther C. Crowell. In this machine the continuous web of paper printed on both sides between pairs of type and impression cylinders, was passed thence to rotating cylinders, which cut the sheets from the web and made in them four folds, delivering them thus folded. The principle of this machine constitutes a type of the leading printing presses of the day. From the machine of 1810, producing a four-page sheet having a circulation of five or six thousand copies, we have to-day newspapers of thirty-six sheets with a daily circulation in the hundreds of thousands,—one of them having had in January, 1890, an average daily issue of over 333,000 copies. Such a production by the old press would have required two thousand pressmen, as many more inkmen, and a thousand folders—to say nothing of the thousand du-

plicate type-forms which would have been necessary. Most generously has invention responded to "the art preservative of all arts."

While the printing press is the great disseminator of knowledge, its mission has been accomplished by the aid of a science yet almost in its infancy, electrical generation. All parts of the world have been brought and bound together by the ramifications of the telegraph and its active and brilliant competitor, the telephone, for which the first patent was granted in 1877, an invention already brought to such perfection as to make successful the feat tried abroad in April last, of carrying on a conversation between points eight hundred miles distant. The Paris end of the line which connects that city with London was switched on the Marseilles wire, and words spoken in London were distinctly heard on the shores of the Mediterranean.

The art of printing could never have attained its exalted position in the wonderland of invention but for all the antecedent inventions in the manufacture of paper, marvels also of human infinity.

But he undertakes an illimitable task who attempts to speak even briefly of the evolution of inventions and their influence upon our industries, or to pay homage to the many distinguished inventors who have met the demands of modern civilization. Their work has been impressed upon us so long, we have so familiarly enjoyed the products of their labors, "patented" devices have so invaded our homes that we can neither eat, drink, sleep, nor work without them, and we have ceased to think of the comforts and conveniences surrounding us as the results of invention.

The great machine by which these changes in our progress in becoming the foremost nation have been wrought, is the United States Patent Office—an office of political preferment. Although a scientific bureau, it has not like other scientific bureaus been exempt from successive changes; although a judicial bureau—the dignity of the office of commissioner of patents being co-equal with the judges of federal and circuit courts, and his decisions accorded equal weight by appellate tribunals—it has not like the judiciary been exempt from the spoils of parties.

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF PLANTS.

BY GERALD MCCARTHY, B.Sc.

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I.

CLASSIFICATION OF PLANTS.

THE doctrine of evolution in the organic world has become pretty generally accepted by modern naturalists and is the only satisfactory theory by which we are able to explain the differences and relationships between the natural families of plants and animals. This doctrine teaches that all the endlessly diverse forms of plant life are the direct descendants of one or a few archetypes which existed in former geological ages. The original forms have probably long ago perished as such. Their descendants, modified by diverse environments, have assumed the very diverse forms we see, but among all these a skillful observer can trace a fundamental resemblance which tells the story of pedigree and relationship. It is largely with this relationship that pure botany concerns itself.

The relationship of different species, genera, and families of plants to one another are set forth in the briefest possible form in the natural system of classification now used in all modern class-books and manuals of botany. The originator of this system was A. L. de Jussieu [zhus-se-uh], a French botanist, who in 1789 published a *Genera Plantarum*, in which this method was applied to the grouping of all the genera of plants known to him.

Previous to that date botanists had used artificial classifications, whose sole object was to enable any one to find the name given to any plant by botanists. There were several such systems, the most noted of which is that of Linnæus, which was based upon the number of the stamens (male organs) and pistils (female organs) in the flower. The natural method not only enables us to find the name of any plant we have before us, but also tells us the true relationship of this plant to all other known plants. Since Jussieu's time many modifications have been made in his system and changes are still being urged. For our purpose, however, we shall accept the classification of Dr. Asa Gray, as given in his "Manual of Botany."

The vegetable kingdom is arranged in two series: I. Flowering Plants or Phænogams [fē'no-gams]; II. Flowerless Plants, or Cryptogams [krip'to-gams].

Series I. is subdivided into two classes, Exogens [ex'o-jens] and Endogens [en'do-jens]. Exogens are those plants the wood in whose stems is arranged in one or more concentric rings or zones, the youngest ring being always on the outside. In this class the plants usually have netted veined leaves and the parts of the flower are in fours or fives, never in threes. All our native hardy timber trees and shrubs and the more common flowering herbs belong to this class. This class of plants is also often called dicotyledons,* because the seed in germinating sends up two seed leaves.

Endogens are those plants the wood in whose stems is not arranged in rings or zones, but is more or less scattered in bundles throughout the pith. In this class the younger bundles are always nearest the center of the stem. The leaves of endogens are usually parallel veined and the parts of the flower in threes, never in fours or fives. This class of plants is also called monocotyledons, because the seed sends up but one seed leaf. Examples of endogens are Indian corn, tulips, lilies, palms, and grasses.

The flowerless or cryptogamic [krip-to-gam'ik] series of plants is divided into the class *Acrogens* [ak'ro-jens], or those which possess an axis of growth and increase from the apex only or mainly, and the class *Thallophytes*, which grow equally in all or several directions. To the first class belong ferns, horsetails, and mosses, which possess true

* Definition of technical words:—(1) Exogenous [ex-oj'e-nus], increasing at the outside; Endogenous [en-doj'e-nus], increasing at the center; Dicotyledonous [di-kot-i-lē'don-us], having two cotyledons, or seed leaves—synonymous with exogenous; Monocotyledonous, having one cotyledon or seed leaf—synonymous with endogenous; (5) Acrogenous [a-krog'e-nus], growing from the apex—applied to ferns, mosses, and horsetails; (6) Thallophyte [thal'lo-fite], a plant which is without specialized organs, such as leaves, flowers, etc.—applied to fungi, lichens, and seaweeds; (7) Gymnospermous [jim-no-sperm'us], having naked seeds—applied to pines and conifers generally.—G. McC.

stems and grow upward. To the second class belong lichens, algæ, and fungi. The first class are also called vascular (possessing sap-vessels) cryptogams, and the second class are called cellular cryptogams, as they possess no sap vessels.

To fix more securely in our minds the principle of classification let us take a specimen plant—a buttercup, for example, and



An Exogenous Stem. Oak.

endeavor to classify it. Its bright yellow flowers show that it belongs to the flowering series. By slicing across the stem we see the woody matter arranged in a ring, and the parts of the flower are in fives. It therefore belongs to the exogenous class. If we are familiar with the physiognomy of our more hardy garden flowers we may be able to group this along with clematis, liver-leaf, larkspur, columbine, and monkshood, all of which belong to the order *Ranunculaceæ* [ra-nun-ku-lā'se-e].

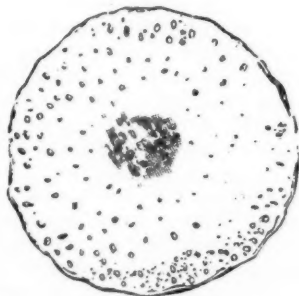
To push our inquiry further we must have a manual in which the plants of our locality are described and arranged according to the natural system. Such works are Gray's "Manual" and "School and Field Book of Botany." Having either of these works in hand we turn to the order *Ranunculaceæ* and after comparing our plant with the different genera comprised in that order we decide our plant to be *Ranunculus* [ra-nun'ku-lus]. A further search under the generic title shows that our species is *bulbosus* or *acris*, as the case may be. The name is therefore *Ranunculus bulbosus** or *R. acris*.

*The distinguishing Latin terms, *bul-bōsus* and *ā'cris*, are attached to the word *ranunculus*, to mark the distinction between the two species of buttercups, those bearing flowers which grow from a bulblike base or stem, and those growing on tall, slender stems, much higher than the former.

The study of any local flora must be undertaken in the same way, and each plant properly classified and named. To a timid or indolent mind the task of hunting down all the unknown species of plants of a district by this method seems appalling. "They are as numerous as the sands of the seashore." No, not quite. The individual herbs and trees are indeed too numerous to be counted, but the number of distinct species in any district no more than ten miles square rarely exceeds one thousand. An industrious student with a manual of his region, a sharp pocket-knife, and a simple magnifying glass ought pretty thoroughly to master the flora of any neighborhood in two years. The mental discipline given by a thorough and systematic study of this kind is in its results simply incalculable and is at almost every one's command.

The whole number of distinct species of plants in the world is estimated at about 180,000. In the United States we have about 12,000 species.

The distribution of species varies with altitude, latitude, humidity, and the nature of the soil. The most luxuriant vegetation is found in the tropics, and here the endogenous class and the cryptogamic series are most abundant. The exogens prevail in the cooler



An Endogenous Stem. Palm.

regions of the earth, though grasses and sedges which are endogens are more or less abundant everywhere. Very cold climates produce only stunted vegetation and such structurally low forms as conifers, lichens, and mosses. Arid regions tend to produce thick and succulent leaved forms such as the cactus of our southwestern states. Warm humid climates favor broad-leaved evergreens.

Of the two hundred odd natural orders of

phænogams which occur in the United States only about a dozen are of much economic value. Among them we may enumerate, in the order of their importance: 1. *Gramineæ*, [gra-min'e-e], or grass family. This order includes not only all the plants commonly called grasses but also all the cereal grains except buckwheat. It furnishes the greater part of the bread, sugar, starch, beer, and whisky consumed by the human race. Many of the grasses furnish medicines and only one species is known to be poisonous to man or beast. That one is *Lolium temulentum*, the poison darnel.

All our northern grasses are herbs, but in the south we have a shrubby grass called swamp cane. In the tropics the bamboos, true grasses, grow to the size of trees.

2. *Rosaceæ* [ro-sā'se-e], or rose family. This order includes all the best fruits of the temperate zone,—apples, pears, quinces, peaches, plums, cherries, apricots, nectarines, strawberries, raspberries, and blackberries; among ornamental plants the rose, spiræa, and hawthorn. No plant of this order is poisonous, though the bitter almond when its leaves ferment in water develops prussic acid, and this acid exists in small quantities in the seeds of the plum and cherry. This order, so useful in cool climates, in the tropics produces only worthless, weedy herbs. It is our fruit family *par excellence* and in value second only to the grass family.

3. The third place must be allotted to the *Leguminosæ* [le-gu-mē-nō'se-e], or pea family. This order includes the pea, bean, lentil, clover, vetch, lupine, and other forage and food plants. Among trees, the beautiful Kentucky coffee tree, honey locust, acacia, cercis [ser'sis] or red-bud, and the silk tree (*Albizia julibrissin*) of the south. Among useful plants it produces the indigo plant, peanut, senna, dyer's wood, and the classical broom (*Cytisus scoparius*) of Scotland. Not a few poisons, too, are found here. The most notorious of these are the loco weed (*Oxytropis Lambertianus*) of our western states and the Calabar bean of the East Indies.

4. Next to the pea family we must rank the *Solanaceæ*, or potato family. This order includes the Irish potato, tomato, red pepper, egg plant, and tobacco, as well as henbane, belladonna, thorn apple, and other narcotic poisons. Its most ornamental member is the petunia. All the plants of this order are herbs and are tender in cold climates.

5. Next to the chief food families we must rank the family which supplies the bulk of our building timber. The *Coniferæ* [ko-nif'e-re], or pine family, includes all our pines, cedar, spruces, firs, cypress, juniper, and arbor vitæ. This order occupies a peculiar position in the system of classification. Its stem is exogenous, but its inflorescence* and germination show that it is closely related to the cryptogamic series. It is in fact an independent class called by many botanists *Gymnospermæ* [jim-nō-sper'me] and is a connecting link between the flowering and the flowerless series.

Of comparatively lesser importance are the *Malvaceæ* [mal-vā'se-e], or mallow family, which furnishes our cotton, okra, hollyhock, althea, and many medicinal plants; *Linaceæ*, the flax family; *Urticaceæ* [ur-ti-kā'se-e], the nettle family, which includes the hemp and ramie plants, the hop, mulberry, and elm; the *Cupulifera* [ku-pu-lif'e-ra], or oak family, which includes the oaks, chestnuts, and hornbeams; the *Juglandaceæ* [ju-glan'da-ce-e], or walnut family, which includes the walnut and butternut; the *Umbellifera* [um bel-lif'e-ra], or parsley family, which includes the parsnip, carrot, celery, and many medicinal plants; the *Cruciferaæ* [kru-sif'e-re], or cabbage family, which includes the cabbage, turnip, radish, mustard, and cress.

Among the ornamental families the lily, heath, and buttercup families take the lead. Among the weed families, the daisy family ranks pre-eminent, including as it does our thistles, cocklebur, fleabanes, hawkweeds, sneezeweeds, daisies, golden-rods, and asters. It includes also the queen of autumn flowers, the chrysanthemum. Its sole contribution to our tables is the lettuce. What ordinary and careless observers call a daisy flower is really a closely compressed head of very small but entirely distinct flowers, as may be easily seen by pulling a head to pieces.

The preponderance of certain types of vegetation in our neighborhoods, natural and inevitable as it seems to us, has not been always so. Wherever coal is found in beds, there we may be certain flourished in former geological ages luxuriant forests of palmlike cycads [sī'kads] and tree ferns, taller and more graceful than any we now see in conservatories.

Our coal beds have been formed by the slow

*[In-flo-res'sence.] Flowering; the putting forth of blossoms.

oxidation and compression of the fronds and stems of the tree ferns, cycads, and gigantic mosses, which once grew on the spot and eventually sunk into the swamps in and near which they grew and there became covered by deposits of sand, mud, or the shells of the small animals which produced the limestone rocks.

When we place in the grate a lump of black coal let us remember that what we hold in our hand may have once been a graceful fern frond or palm stem, which has suffered "a sad sea change." In the next paper will be considered how and where these plants secured the heat they now as coal give out to warm our chambers and cook our food.

End of Required Reading for April.

"RABBONI."

BY FLORA BEST HARRIS.

"THE Christ is risen from the dead,"
This is the gracious word they said;
"Come see His angel-warded bed,
The Christ is risen!"

Is it the Olive shadows gray,
Or jealous mist of early day,
That hides the grave wherein He lay—
The Christ arisen?

Nay; fairer than the shining rim
Of far-off dawn, the *Light of Him*;
Before His face the world is dim,
"Master, Rabboni!"

CAPITAL INVESTED ON THE SEAS.

BY JUDGE W. W. CARRUTH.

OUR country in its early days was hardly more than a strip of land on the shore of the Atlantic Ocean, and our people cultivated the soil as a means of subsistence but they looked to the sea for profit, enterprise, and speculation.

The shipowners were, two or three generations ago, the wealthy class. Of one Boston merchant it was said that let the wind blow from what quarter it might it was favorable to some of his ships.

Men yet live who remember seeing an East India bound vessel make her final preparations for her voyage. They can tell you how they watched her loading day after day at the wharf at Salem or Boston. She was a large ship, perhaps five hundred tons, and she was weeks taking in her cargo through her one hatchway, every package being hoisted by manual labor from the wharf and lowered into her hold. Some very enterprising captain might now and then employ a horse to haul at the tackle. Her cargo being stowed she took in her powder, for she carried cannon on her deck and muskets in her cabin to

fight the pirates she was very likely to encounter.

Last of all she took in the specie with which to purchase her return freight. This specie was silver dollars in kegs, the loading and stowing of which were personally superintended by an official now unknown. He was called the supercargo, and he was usually some promising young man devoted to the interests of the owners. He made the voyage and he would negotiate the sale of the ship's freight and purchase the goods she was to bring home. To be a supercargo was to have an opportunity to distinguish one's self. He was often given an interest in the profits of the voyage and among his circle of young men in the city small pools—as they are now called—would be made up, whose joint contributions would be invested in a few cases of prints or barrels of Boston crackers to be disposed of to the foreigners. These little adventures—as they were called—were often the beginnings of great fortunes.

In those days every city boy was as familiar with nautical terms as if he were the Red

Rover himself; it could not well be otherwise for the city lived on its commerce, and the shipping was the pivot on which all enterprise turned. The country boy arriving in the city to seek his fortune speedily learned that the easiest way to conceal his greenness was to visit the piers and wharves and pick up sea-slang from the people he would meet there. Most likely too he would early in his wanderings thereabouts, fall in with some city youngsters who would challenge him to go to the "main truck" and put his cap on it.

All this form of traffic has passed and gone. There are no supercargoes. The pirates have disappeared. Specie when it is shipped to-day goes in the steel treasure-room of an ocean greyhound. The American merchant can by means of the telegraph buy and sell goods all over the world without leaving his counting-room. Whatever may be the advantages of the new system over the old, we lost in the evolution a school which trained and graduated the American sailor—a man whose hearty patriotism, courage, skill, and judgment have never been surpassed by any people in the world.

The introduction of railroads sixty years ago developed new and speedier avenues to wealth. Our population, which had to so great an extent clung to the Atlantic seaboard, moved westward with a vastly accelerated pace which was to carry it to the Pacific shore.

The majority of our young men to-day have never seen a sea-going vessel. The interior of our continent affords a field for their energies, and while we shall show, with regret, that the commerce under the American flag has not the relative position it once maintained, we are inclined to the belief that the diminution is because of natural causes which are by no means to be altogether deplored, and further that our people will be quick to grasp the moment and the means to enlarge our commercial marine when its profits promise to be superior to the profits of internal enterprises.

The last Congress enacted a law known as the subsidy bill. Great interest was excited in shipping circles when it seemed probable that this bill would pass, and the general public was inclined to look for striking and most satisfactory results. But such results are as yet of the future. The law is such that no ship now afloat can receive any ben-

efit from the legislation; new ships, answering certain requirements as to build, capacity, and speed, must be launched before any money can be drawn from the National Treasury, and it is yet to be demonstrated whether or not the subsidy will be sufficient to pay for the cost of building under the terms of the law. But with a certain volume of freight assured the matter of profit would be no longer a question, and the subsidy would be, what it should be, merely an incentive to the building of American ships—not a gift which by itself alone would be profitable.

We see for instance at this time the characteristic American pluck and originality which gave us the famous clippers of the '50's and the monitors of the '60's, making itself manifest in a new form and type of sea-going vessels constructed to carry grain directly from the interior of the continent across the Atlantic to Europe. She is known as a "whaleback," is shaped like a large cigar, pointed at both ends, and her deck is arched slightly, or "built crowning." There is a small house near her stern and a steering turret near her bow, and but for these her deck is one smooth unbroken sheet of iron over which the waves are welcome to play at their will. She offers nothing of consequence to the fury of the tempest as does the ordinary vessel, and holds the same relation to the everyday steamship that the monitor does to the man-of-war.

A vessel of this type, the *Wetmore*, has already made the voyage to Europe, and returning has successfully made a trip from Philadelphia to the coast of the North Pacific, laden with a cargo of machinery. These tests would seem to go a long way toward establishing the reputation of these new crafts for safety, and we may look with confidence for a great increase in their number. Their production at this time shows how readily individual enterprise aside from all government aid will make itself felt when, to use the commercial phrase, "there is money in it."

The chief gain by the subsidy bill so far is the establishment of a line of American steamships with the Plate countries. The only other new enterprise is a line from Galveston with Venezuela and Colombian ports. These new lines will involve the construction of six new ships, three of the second and three of the fourth class, and the Pacific Mail

Company will add to its fleet within a few years six or eight new vessels. In the aggregate about sixteen steamers, three of them of 5,000 tons and 16 knots speed will probably be added to our commercial marine in consequence of the recent legislation.

For the year ending June 30, 1890, we paid for transporting the United States mail across the Atlantic, \$397,669.40. Of this sum 60 cents was paid to a ship under the stars and stripes and the balance to foreign vessels.

When it comes to the Pacific we do better. Carrying our mails across that great ocean costs us about \$70,000, of which all but about \$10,000 went to our own flag.

For mail service on the sea other than transatlantic or transpacific we paid about \$69,000, of which sum about \$56,000 was paid to our own ships.

France pays her steamship companies annually about \$5,000,000, Great Britain over \$3,000,000, and the smaller powers follow the example of their great neighbors and give subsidies of greater or less amount, while our own government, as we have before seen, has as yet paid nothing.

At the outset the United States was behind Great Britain in the creation of a commercial steam marine. The Cunard (English) Company was incorporated and subsidized in 1838. This company had been running ten years and making weekly trips, before in 1850 the *Atlantic* went to sea as the pioneer of the Collins (American) line. It looked then however, as if, though late in the start we might overtake our rival. The sea going qualities and performances of our new mail steamers were so admirable that the Cunard Company was obliged to bring out new ships to compete with them.

The development subsequently was steady and healthful until 1855, then the retrogression commenced. In September, 1854, the *Arctic* (Collins) was lost, and in January, 1856, the *Pacific* of the same line sailed from Liverpool for New York and was never heard from again. Mr. Collins and his associates already deeply involved could not sustain these terrible disasters and early in 1857 they went into liquidation. From the effect of their misfortunes American ocean commerce has never recovered.

In 1890 we built 505 sailing vessels and 410 steam vessels, constructing 62,989 tons more than the amount built the previous year. Of this the Atlantic coast builds 53 per cent,

the Pacific coast 4 per cent, the northern lakes 37 per cent, and the western rivers 6 per cent.

The earnings of vessels vary from time to time within a wide range. With large crops in this country and small ones abroad as is now the case, freight rates for ocean transportation are fairly remunerative and could a continuance of this situation be anticipated with a reasonable certainty we should see increased activity in the shipyards of this country. There have been seasons in the past when the freight money of a round trip from Boston or New York to California, thence to China and the East Indies and home, have more than paid for the whole cost of the ship. But there is no reason to hope for a return of such prosperity, for the mercantile marine and shipowners would gladly accept something far within such remunerative profits.

Seamen's wages vary from \$18 to \$25 per month, depending on the port from which they sail and whether the voyage is coastwise or foreign; the latter, being longer, pay the lower rate.

On the arrival of a disabled vessel several questions arise in regard to the liability for the cost of repairs. Suppose a vessel has been struck by a hurricane and hove down on her beam ends. The captain has to determine whether he can save the vessel or abandon her at the first opportunity. Thousands of dollars depend upon his judgment and action at a time when the clearest headed man might be flustered. He can cut away some of the spars and right the vessel or he can throw over some of the cargo or, if necessary, he can do both.

If he cuts away the spars, thereby sacrificing part of the vessel in order to save the cargo, and takes the vessel safely into port, the cargo can be assessed for a part of the cost of repair. The cargo can be assessed also in the case of a vessel that has been compelled to pay an exorbitant bill for towage in order to reach port and save the cargo after having been dismasted or otherwise damaged beyond the power or ability of the captain to repair.

If the cost of repairs be less than 5 per cent of the amount of the insurance the underwriters do not pay it, but if the loss be considerable it falls on the underwriters, who pay it, after deducting one third of the amount for what may be called new life, on account of new material.

If we may prognosticate the future of American shipping by reference to the past, the signs are full of promise. "Swift ships," said an English statesman, "bring swift orders for goods," and once let the American merchants feel the impulse of a profitable foreign trade in this hemisphere and we shall see beyond a doubt American ocean greyhounds coursing from our ports to Central and South America, to the West Indies, and not much later on to all the ports of Europe. The American-built Collins line of steamers surpassed in every respect their rivals of that day, the English-built Cunarders, and there is reason to suppose that the time is not so very distant when the shipyards of our country will turn out steamships which will prove record-breakers in their day.

Under the system of reciprocity as set forth in the recent tariff legislation, we are destined to see results most favorable to our commercial marine. Brazil has within a few months entered into a treaty with us by which she admits many articles free. Flour is absolutely free and the duty on pork is but nominal. Cuba and Porto Rico have reduced the duty on flour from \$5.80 per barrel to \$1 (which gives us the market), besides putting nearly one hundred articles of American production on the free list; while Germany, without negotiating a formal treaty, has removed vexatious restrictions so as to open to us an entirely new market for fifteen to twenty million dollars of pork per annum.

It is interesting to note that while the carrying trade of the ocean is of vast importance at the present time, and while, as we have said, we believe our countrymen will in time control their full share of it, it is yet not of that overwhelming importance to us that it is to some other nations, notably Great Britain. Never before in the history of the world has a great nation been so situated as to make its marine of minor importance. For always heretofore the trade of a nation must have been either ocean trade or none. The want of facilities for overland transportation made attempts to convey goods otherwise than by sea almost nugatory.

We do not indeed forget those caravans of the oriental nations with their "ships of the desert," the camels, which wound their slow, painful, and dangerous way across the sandy deserts. But the ancients were not long in discovering that one small water-craft could carry more goods than many beasts of burden

and once this conviction rested in their minds the stronger among them sought to cripple the commerce of the weaker. For this cause, the control of the sea, Rome annihilated Carthage; and coming down to modern times we see Great Britain ready to declare war against any nation or power whose commerce threatens her own.

But our country is a world in itself. Its inland trade dwarfs into insignificance all the domestic or foreign commerce of the ancients and is beyond that of the foreign and home trade of the England of not long ago. It is this fact that has so long made us contented to see other nations gain the control of the sea. We have had enough to do on our own territory between the shores of the Atlantic and the Pacific and between the Great Lakes and the Gulf of Mexico.

Our coasting trade, in which we have absolutely no foreign competition, has already developed some fine specimens of marine architecture, steel steamships of great carrying capacity and of speed quite sufficient for the purpose for which the ships are employed. Such ships are regularly employed between New York and the various coast points; and Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore have each lines which are a credit to the mechanics who built the ships and to the mariners who sail them.

The officers of these vessels are men trained by long experience, and the infrequency of accidents among their ships is the strongest evidence of the skill of those who manage them. For to make even the shortest voyage in a steam vessel requires the most unrelenting vigilance on the part of those in charge. The vast fires glowing in the very heart of the ship must be watched that they do not overstep their assigned limits and become masters. The great boilers charged with their head of steam the explosion of which would more effectually destroy the whole ship than would the dropping of an enemy's bomb-shell, require the trained observation and control of a man who has both science and practice at his fingers' ends; the powerful engines moving with the smoothness of a timepiece and the energy of ten thousand horses must be accelerated or controlled by a mind and a hand whose combined results make the myths of magic tame and commonplace.

And over all these various departments, holding many lives and many fortunes in his

control, is the head of the ship,—the captain. To him fog, fire, and collision stand out as foes ready to ruin him and all belonging to him if he relax in the least degree that eternal vigilance which is, with him, the price not only of liberty, but of life. To him, too, must be known the variable and irregular sandbars which more or less blockade every one of our Atlantic ports, and the position of the innumerable lights by which the government has endeavored to aid the mariner in his course from port to port. The highest qualities of manhood are brought

out in these men, and the more of such officers we have the richer and stronger is the nation.

As we said early in this article we lost when we lost our old sailing marine, the American sailor; but this statement must be qualified by asserting that in the American steamship officer we have a type of man so creditable and so valuable that if it were not to be preserved by natural laws, as we think it is, it would be worth while for the country to keep it alive by any system of bounty or subsidy whatever.

APHASIA.

BY ALFRED BINET.

Translated for "The Chautauquan" from the "Revue Des Deux Mondes."

AMONG the more important results which French contemporaneous psychology has already obtained by adding to the former methods of investigation hypnotic experimentation and close observation of diseases and of anatomy, it is necessary to place in the first line those reached through the study of language. Certainly, no study is older than this; Aristotle, Locke, Leibnitz, Kant, Condillac, all meditated over its problems. But there was lacking to them all a process of analysis but recently discovered, that of studying language through its diseases.

There exists, as one of a great number of affections of the brain, a psychological symptom of a particular nature caused by some disarrangement of the faculty of speech. The disease is known by the name of aphasia, and its victims are termed aphasiacs. With an astonishing precision it causes in men an experience of dissociation; thought still exists, but the sign, the mode of expressing the thought, is forgotten.

When a person, from any one of several causes, is seized with complete aphasia, he preserves his intelligence, he remembers, reasons, perceives surrounding objects, but he is unable to communicate with others; he can no longer speak or understand the words addressed to him; he cannot write or read; sometimes even the language of gesture is lost to him.

Such a person is generally thought to be stricken down by paralysis. But this is not

always the case. He cannot speak, but his vocal organs may remain intact. The lesion which produces aphasia is more delicate, more complex; it acts upon the inner sources of language and not upon its exterior organs. Before pronouncing a word it is necessary to think. It is this thought of the word which the aphasiac can no longer catch. It is his "interior language" which is at fault.

The sciences of observation have advanced slowly and often painfully. If we search back over a period of thirty years in the history of aphasia we shall find only a few equivocal expressions and contradictory observations concerning it. The true idea of the disease had not yet been grasped.

In 1862 Broca took up the study and all was changed. Instead of fumbling among archives and searching for arguments through ancient and poorly made observations, from which can be drawn all sorts of contradictory conclusions, he placed the problem in an experimental form, and collected personal, recent facts, capable of being verified by all.

That which he specially studied is the particular form of aphasia which consists in the loss of articulation. Its victims preserve all the signs of intelligence in their faces; they understand what is said to them and fully comprehend their situation and all that passes around them; they will give up any object for which they are asked, know how to count money, can indicate numbers by their fingers; they can by means of writing ex-

press their wants, give their orders, and regulate their affairs. But they are utterly incapable of speaking.

Some of these sufferers are completely mute, not being able to utter any sound; others ceaselessly repeat meaningless words; still others retain in mind one correct word or phrase which they apply to everything. In very light forms of the disease a great number of words may be remembered but certain parts of speech, notably the nouns, will have disappeared.

In his search for the cause of this form of disease, the first case which Broca studied was that of an unfortunate aphasiac of Bicêtre, France, who for twenty-one years had lost the power of speech and had been an inmate of a hospital. To all questions given him he replied only by the monosyllable *tan*, twice repeated. He retained his intelligence, understood everything said to him. Stricken successively by paralysis in his right arm, then in his right leg, he died. Broca in a study of his brain discovered with astonishment that only the left cerebral hemisphere was affected.

Some months later upon another case of the same kind, Broca confirmed his first observation. Lelong, this second victim, used five French words, some of them changed a little from their correct form. When asked his name he answered *Lelo* for Lelong; he affirmed and denied by the proper words; the numeral three served for all numbers; and with the French word for *always* he made all answers for which he could not use any of the other four words. A study of his brain revealed the same disarrangement as that shown in the first case, only a little more limited.

Surprised by these results, which seemed to overthrow the principles of physiology, Broca multiplied his researches. In April, 1863, he had already made eight examinations with the same result; in March of the following year the number had increased to twenty. The problem was solved; the seat of articulate language was found. In the thirty years elapsing since his discovery authorities say that not a single serious exception to his rule has been found.

Let us briefly consider the characteristic traits of this lesion. It is fixed, as has been said in the left cerebral hemisphere, at the base of the third frontal convolution. There is there a little quantity of gray substance which must be considered as the motive or-

gan of articulation. It must remain unimpaired in order that the individual may properly express his thoughts. The curious thing about the whole affair is, that the circumvolution of the left hemisphere alone plays this rôle. It was with an astonishment bordering on stupefaction that Broca discovered in his second patient this same peculiar affection of the brain. His adversaries thought for some time that in this localization they had an argument against his discovery. It had been held before that the two hemispheres had a symmetrical action.

But facts must prevail over theories; and it is a fact that the disease which produces aphasia in all the cases examined had attacked the left side of the brain. Broca gives a very ingenious and very reasonable explanation of this. He remarks that a great many of the most delicate mechanical acts such as writing, designing, etc., are executed by the right hand. Imitation, education, perhaps hereditary impulses have contributed to this result. But as the movements of the right side are directed by the left hemisphere in consequence of the crossing of the motive fibers, it results that individuals right-handed as to their members are left-handed as to their brain. It is notably the left hemisphere which is used in writing, and Broca concludes that the child learns to use the left side for talking as well as for other mechanical acts a little difficult. This is why the affection which produces aphasia is located in the left side. Were a perfectly left-handed person attacked by the disease, its seat for the same reason would be found in the right hemisphere, according to this form of reasoning.

It was some time after Broca's discovery before it became known that the disease which he pointed out was only one of several kinds of aphasia. The affections of language are many and varied. The person who is deprived of the power of speaking may be troubled with several other similar ailments; for example, he may not be able to read or to write. At first these symptoms were considered as merely secondary effects, but recent study has shown that this is not true.

Verbal blindness, one form of aphasia, as the name indicates, is a blindness as regards words alone. The individual suffering from it is unable to understand the meaning of any words written or printed. The disease transforms an educated person into an illiterate.

The cause of this singular trouble is not in the eye, for the patient can see the pictures, can even distinguish the difference in the forms of the letters. But the words convey to him no intelligence. His own handwriting makes no more impression on him than the characters of an unknown tongue. Verbal blindness consists then in some alteration of the mental operation of perception.

Very often this disease is accompanied by other more pronounced troubles, among which it passes almost unnoticed, but occasionally it is the only impairment manifested. Charcot relates the interesting history of such a patient. It was that of an intelligent tradesman who one day at a hunting party lost consciousness. Being restored it was found that he was paralyzed on his right side. He jabbered meaninglessly, and used one word for another. Little by little, however, he recovered, and after fifteen days thought himself quite restored. One day wishing to give some directions regarding his business, he did so in writing. Thinking he had forgotten something, he re-opened his letter and made the woeful discovery that he could not read what he had written. Trying himself further he found that he could not read a word of any written or printed matter. To remedy this lack he was obliged to learn to read again, just as a little child.

Verbal deafness is another form of this disease. There are three senses in which we speak of hearing; there is the simple perception of sound or noise as such; there is a perception of sound attended with intelligence as to its nature or origin,—thus we recognize the rolling of a carriage over the street, the cry of a child, the barking of a dog; and there is a third perception of the meaning of words. To this last only is reference made under the name of verbal hearing.

It is the verbal hearing which is destroyed in one affected with verbal deafness. He distinctly hears sound, but he does not apprehend anything said to him. He is in some sort, in the situation of one transported into a strange country whose people speak an unknown tongue.

A notable instance of this disease was furnished in the case of a man named Wernicke who replied in most irrelevant manner to all questions asked him. He heard perfectly well, but did not understand. In another case the afflicted person could answer correctly

everything asked him in writing, but was wild in his responses to oral questions.

There is still another form of aphasia which prevents those afflicted from writing, although they can readily understand both the spoken and the written words. The loss of power to speak we have already considered. The inability to write is known under the name of *agraphy*. Less is known about it as yet than about any of the other forms.

Knowing these facts, it is necessary now to analyze them, seeking for an explanation of the mechanism of language.

Charcot has constructed the most complete psychological theory of language. He bases his theory upon the existence of these four independent forms of aphasia. He then proceeds to show that language itself is composed of a certain number of independent mental actions, and as these operations are the acquisitions of the memory, it follows that every person using the conventional language, has four kinds of memory: a special memory for reading; one for understanding spoken words; one for the utterance of words; and one for writing. Each one of these memories utilizes the material which belongs to it, and is independent of the others.

A child learns to speak by two operations distinct in their nature: He retains in his mind the words which are pronounced before him, and he tries to repeat them. The first operation brings into play the hearing, or auditive, memory, and the second the memory of articulation.

Later in his education the child learns to read and to write. In the former process there is engraved on his mind the shapes of the letters, and he associates these new mental forms of the words which he had before learned to speak with the other forms already in his mind. Writing calls for still another mental impression of the same words. Thus language in its entirety is the result of four distinct memories.

This explanation will help us to understand the four different forms of aphasia. If a person loses his visual memory only, he will no longer recognize written (or printed) words. The signs will recall to him no memory and consequently will awaken no idea. A similar result follows when any of the other forms of memory are affected.

The whole study of aphasia has been represented by the following diagram: four circles

are drawn, one in each corner of a small square, representing the four forms of the disease; a fifth circle in the center of the square represents the center of ideas. To finish the plan it is necessary to represent by a sign the physical organs; the eye must be indicated as being in connection with the center of the visual memory; the ear with the auditive memory; the hand with the graphic center; and the mouth with the center of the circle of articulation. One other detail and the design is completed: there must be indicated the multiplied relations connecting the four centers with one another and with the center of ideas. In the case of reading, having seen the words one can pronounce them or write them. There is then to be indicated the intercommunications of these circles. This somewhat complicated arrangement of lines will be found helpful in giving a clearer understanding of this subject.

There still remains another aspect of the subject to be considered: it is, that people are not all constructed after the same model; each one has his own style of remembering, of thinking, of reasoning; and his intellectual psychology bears its own personal mark, as do his sentiments and his passions. This individuality results from a preponderance which certain sensations and certain impressions acquire over others.

A thought always presents itself to the mind accompanied by a sign. This sign is a word which remains in the mind. It varies in its nature with each individual. For one it is an interior murmur, vague and confused; for another it is a perfect word, clear and distinct. These two classes of persons *hear* themselves think. There are others who read their thoughts, who *see* them either in the form of mental pictures of objects, or of mental words. There are still another class who cannot think without experiencing the impulse to articulate. Still another class of persons might be called the indifferent type, as they are able to appeal at will to all four memories. They are representatives of the perfect equilibrium of these functions.

Each individual belonging to a distinct type uses after his own fashion this complicated apparatus of language. He employs largely from preference one of his forms of memory and neglects the others. Thus he may hold the visual center subordinate to the auditive center, or vice versa.

The loss of the hearing memory is a graver

loss than that of any of the other three. The loss of the memory of sound will gradually involve one in trouble as regards speaking, then in reading and in writing, and the person will become a complete aphasiac. Such persons are—if I may coin a new term—aphasiacs *by induction*. It is often difficult to distinguish the latter from ordinary aphasiacs. But one great difference exists between them: the former may be cured. The disease will disappear as soon as the patient learns to bring into active use the memories left him. One memory gone the others can be trained in large measure to supply its place.

The study of the internal structure of nervous centers which anatomists follow with the aid of the microscope and of reagents, have shown that these centers are composed of two principal elements, cells and fibers. The cerebral alterations which produce aphasia present this interesting fact, that in certain cases they affect the cells, and in other cases the fibers situated about the cells. There is then sometimes an isolated lesion of the cells; sometimes an isolated lesion of the fibers. The comparative study of the physiological effects produced by these kinds of lesions merits a close study.

In Germany the disease of language produced by the destruction of the fibers is called aphasia of conductivity. Déjerine has for several years made a special study of this form. He cites the case of a man who can read aloud but cannot understand what he reads. He is in full possession of both his visual and his auditive memory, but there is a rupture of the communicating fibers passing from the centers of these two memories to the center of ideas.

We see then, that there are known to-day three forms of aphasia: that caused by some injury to the verbal centers; that caused by induction; and that brought about by lack of the means of conductivity.

The three distinct points which it has been the aim of this paper to bring out clearly, are: First, that there exists a plurality of verbal memories which are independent of one another and which are distinguished by the nature of the images evoked; second, there is a frequent preponderance of one of these memories over the others; third, there is a harmonious working of all the memories, when in a normal condition, so as to form that well co-ordinated grouping of sensations, of thoughts, and of acts, which we call language.

TELEGRAPHING THROUGH THE AIR WITHOUT WIRES.

BY PROF. JOHN TROWBRIDGE.

Of Harvard University.

THE passenger on an ocean steamer hearing the ominous sound of the fog whistle, and realizing the danger of collision, cannot help wondering whether the mysterious agent of electricity and magnetism will ever enable the officers of two steamships to communicate with each other through the murky atmosphere which shuts them from each other's observation and makes navigation so perilous.

On land the problem of communicating intelligence through the air by electricity without the use of wires assumes very little importance—and probably would never be used even if it were practicable. At the present time signals can be flashed from one elevated station to another by means of mirrors. No one, however, would adopt this method if he had a wire with telephones at his command, and it is not probable that any one would use an electrical method which employed the free air between elevated stations as the medium of electrical communication; for this method of communication could take place only between two stations with no intervening object between them. The curvature of the earth would effectually oppose electrical transmission between two stations in extreme cases more than one hundred miles apart—and in ordinary cases more than thirty miles apart.

Are there not, however, it may be asked, currents of air or certain layers of air by which electrical disturbances can be sent like ships before the trade winds? The belief is common that there may be such strata or currents of air, and that telegraphing by their aid without wires is not impossible. The scientific man can only say that moving currents of air or water do not necessarily facilitate the transmission of electricity. The experiment has been tried of measuring the velocity of electrical impulses along a jet of water moving with great velocity, both in the direction which the water was moving and in the opposite direction, and no appreciable change in the velocity of electricity could be detected. It is true that currents of air can remove electrical charges from con-

ductors, and in a certain sense can convey electrical charges from one body to another, but the process is a slow one and cannot be used to transmit signals electrically.

The problem of communicating with points on land by electrical means without the use of wires, does not seem to the writer worthy of consideration. At sea, however, in a fog, any method of electrical communication without the use of wires immediately assumes great importance.

In this case an electrical method which could use the air instead of a wire would be of great benefit to humanity. If one ship could learn of the presence and the course of another ship within a radius of two or three miles, or even one mile, the danger of collision could be avoided.

The study of means of accomplishing the transmission of messages by electricity through a fog without wires has occupied much of my attention during the past ten years. At first I experimented upon the distance electrical impulses could be transmitted by induction between two parallel coils of wire. It is well known that if an alternating, or to and fro, current of electricity is sent through a coil of wire in the shape of a ring—it will excite in a similar ring placed parallel and opposite to it currents of electricity. If now a telephone is connected with the coil in which we induce electrical currents, the note of the alternating current in the opposed coil can be heard if the distance between the coils is not too great. Coils of wire six feet in diameter with twelve turns of wire placed forty feet apart will mutually affect each other if an alternating current of sufficient strength is sent through one or the other of the coils. The current employed must, however, be a very strong one even for this comparatively short distance. A short calculation will show that if a coil of sixty feet in diameter with ten or twelve turns be placed on the mast of a steamship, the distance it could induce currents which would produce an appreciable sound in a telephone in a similar coil on an approaching vessel, would be less than six hun-

dred feet, even with the employment of the strongest dynamo currents. Moreover, the coils must be exactly opposite each other—that is a line through the center of one coil must pass through the center of the other and be perpendicular to the plane of both coils.

Two steamships coming bow on thus might recognize each other's presence in a fog within six hundred feet if they were provided with coils of this size, and if the coils were in the position we have described, their axes coinciding with the fore and aft line of the steamships. If however they were approaching each other at an angle they could not recognize each other's presence even at six hundred feet, and if one were presenting a broadside to the other, or in other words was in its most dangerous position, no induction would take place between the coils, for they would be at right angles to each other and neither would inclose lines of force from the other.

It is well known that Edison has adopted the method of induction which is the basis of that which I have described, to communicate between moving trains and way stations. A suitable arrangement of wires in the train connected with a battery enables an operator to send an impulse by induction through the air to a wire stretched beside the track or between the rails and thus to influence a receiving instrument at a distant station. There is thus no direct connection between the arrangement in the moving train and the wire beside the track. The impulse is transmitted through the air a distance of possibly six feet, but not more.

The phenomenon is the same which manifests itself between telephone wires and the trolley wires of an electric railway, or between telephone and electric light wires which are strung parallel and near to each other. In the early experiments of Joseph Henry we find that he placed coils of wire on opposite sides of a door and was enabled to send electrical disturbances from one coil to the other. In certain cases he moved his coils until they were three feet apart and still could detect the disturbing effect of one on the other.

Having failed to detect with currents of practical strength the effects of induction over distances of more than one hundred feet, I was led to examine the late results of Hertz in order to see if two coils could not be electrically tuned to each other and thus

be made to respond over much greater distances. Having connected the large coils I have described with Leyden jars, the number and size of these jars being the same for each coil, I charged the jars connected with one coil and discharged them through this coil in the hope that the jar in the neighboring coil would respond to the oscillation of the discharging jar—just as one tuning fork can set another fork to vibrating if the latter is tuned to the first fork.

Now Hertz has shown that electrical tuning can take place if the neighboring currents have certain relations to each other. One of these relations consists in connecting the terminals of the coils to Leyden jars of suitable capacity. When coils of six feet in diameter with ten to twelve turns of carefully insulated wire are placed parallel to each other from three to five feet apart, and their ends brought close together, but not touching, these ends being connected with opposite coatings of a Leyden jar, a discharge of electricity passing from the inside coating of one jar to its outside will produce a corresponding oscillation of electricity in the Leyden jar connected with the other coil. If the number of Leyden jars in one circuit is increased beyond that in the other, one coil with its jars cannot be made to respond to the oscillations in the other. Thus the coils and their jars may be said to be electrically tuned one to the other.

This analogy to the mutual action of two tuning forks seems quite perfect. If the forks are in unison, one on being excited will set the other in motion even across a room, while if the prongs of one be loaded more than those of the other, one fork fails to respond to the other. It seemed to me that it might be possible so to tune the coils that one could be made to respond to the other at distances apart which would greatly exceed those in which the ordinary effect of induction could be recognized. The experiment was varied in many ways. A Dolbear static telephone was substituted for Hertz's spark apparatus, but no effect could be perceived at distances greater than those between which the ordinary effects of induction were recognizable.

It might be asked, cannot a powerful electro-magnet be made to excite magnetism in a piece of iron or steel at comparatively great distances and thus give signals. To test the practical range of the influence of a powerful

electro-magnet, I mounted a coil of twenty or thirty turns of coarse wire at the end of a lecture room and passed a powerful alternating current of electricity through it. I then removed the coil from an ordinary Bell telephone, leaving merely a magnet without wires with an iron diaphragm in front of it. Applying this instrument to the ear and passing to and fro in front of the great electro-magnet I could readily detect the note given out by the alternations of the current in this electro-magnet. On receding from the electro-magnet the noise grew fainter and fainter and finally ceased to be recognizable at a distance of fifty feet. It was evident that if the dimensions of the electro-magnet were greatly increased, or if a number of smaller ones were suitably arranged so as to give rise to lines of magnetic induction over a greater area, the distance over which my magnetic telephone would respond to these electro-magnets could be much increased.

It was interesting to notice the great sensitiveness of a steel magnet to magnetic fluctuations, although the range as far as distance was concerned was comparatively small.

These methods therefore seemed impracticable, and I was led to consider the case of two large plates opposed to each other, one on each vessel, and alternately charged by electricity; for it is well known that such an arrangement constitutes what is called a condenser. It is practically the arrangement called a Franklin plate, with air between the plates instead of glass. When one of these plates is connected with the pole of a machine which can throw positive and negative charges of electricity upon it, the opposing plate will respond and become alternately negative and positive. A Dolbear's static telephone therefore connected with one plate should indicate the presence of the exciting plate, when the plates are parallel. A cold calculation, however, soon showed me, some years ago, that the plates would have to be of great size, and must be elevated at a considerable height to escape the disturbing influence of the earth, and be excited by an enormous electrical charge in order to affect each other at even the distance of six hundred feet.

I then turned to the consideration of another method which I described ten years ago in leading scientific journals. I was led to consider this method from some experiments

which were conducted in Cambridge on the effect of the grounding of the pole of the battery connected with the time service at the observatory. I found that the time signals at the observatory could be heard at a distance of a mile from the observatory by connecting water pipes and gas pipes of the city at a suitable distance from each other with a telephone, and by inserting the terminals of the wire connected with a telephone in the ground at a distance of six or seven hundred feet from the observatory, the time signals could also be heard. The battery employed in the time service seemed to fill, so to speak, the earth through a definite region with electricity; and by placing the terminals of a telephone at suitable distances apart, these time signals sent from Cambridge to Boston could be picked up almost anywhere between Boston and Cambridge, from the gas pipes and water pipes of the city. Starting from this fact it did not seem impossible so to charge the water about a steamship with electricity that another ship coming within the charged area, might pick up signals and in turn by charging the water about itself might convey signals.

This method seemed to offer a possibility of communicating with vessels at sea in a fog within the danger limits, although in the confusion and noise incident to a steamship it can hardly be called practical in ordinary hands. The method is this: Each steamship is supposed to be provided with a powerful alternating dynamo. One pole of each dynamo is led to the water at the bowsprits of each vessel, while the other pole through an insulated cable is dragged astern, and communicates with water at its bare end some hundreds of feet from the bowsprit. The vessel therefore resembles a cuttle fish, and charges the water not with a murky cloud but with electricity, so to speak. If the means are provided on each vessel alternately to throw a telephone and the dynamo on the circuit we have described, the telephone terminals being in the water at points of different electrical saturation will pick up the signals of the oncoming vessel. Here the water acts as the medium of the transmissions of the electrical signals.

Mr. Preece, the head of the London telegraphic system, informed me that my method was tried between the Isle of Wight and the main shore of England. The submarine cable happened to be out of repair, and the termi-

nals of a telephone were stuck in the ground at suitable distances along the shore near Southampton. The ends of the battery on the Isle of Wight were suitably grounded, and on making and breaking the contact with the battery, messages were heard in the telephone, through the water, a distance of eight miles, without a cable or any medium save the earth and water.

There is still another method with which I have experimented and which still seems to me to offer a more practical outlook than any of the preceding. It is well known that water conducts sound four times better than air. The sound of two stones hit together under water can be heard much farther than the same collision in air. I therefore experimented with the following apparatus.

Two carbon points, or one carbon point and one platinum point, between which an electrical current could pass, were enclosed in a water-tight box, one side of which consisted of a flexible membrane. This membrane or diaphragm was so arranged that its vibrations altered the electrical contact of the carbon points, the apparatus constituting the ordinary transmitter employed in telephony. Wires were led from the carbon points to a boat which contained a telephone. The box was lowered ten or twelve feet in the water, and a large bell lowered from another boat at a distance of eight hundred to a thousand feet was struck with a gong. The sound of the gong could be heard through the water, but it could also be heard at this distance and much greater distance when struck above water, with no apparatus but the human ear. A feebler source of sound was then substituted for the gong, until finally a noise could be

heard through the water which could not be heard above the water by the unaided ear.

This method, as I have said, seems to me more practicable than the others which I have described. The electrical attachment is not essential, for an ear trumpet connected with a suitable box provided with a membrane and lowered over the side of a vessel should convey the sound of signals to the ear. The electrical attachment merely allows one to sit in the cabin with telephone at the ear and therefore is a more convenient method of detecting these signals.

The several methods I have described, namely: by electrical induction between coils of wire, by direct action of powerful electromagnets, by charged plates elevated above the surface of the ground or water, by charging the earth or water with electricity, so to speak, by employing the known property of water of transmitting sound four times better than air, are all imperfect and are manifestly inferior to a method of sending Morse signals through the air by means of fog horns.

A code of signals could be arranged consisting of short and long sounds analogous to the short and long dashes in the Morse recording instrument, which might be useful in communicating between ships in a fog.

Telegraphing through the air without wires by means of electricity does not therefore seem at present to have the element of practicability in it. Some time in the future we may find means of modifying the electrical condition of the earth—we will say at Chicago—so that a point at its antipodes will respond. When this is done treaties of electrical reciprocity will have to be entered into between China and the United States.

PEASANT LIFE IN RUSSIA.

BY LILLIE B. CHACE WYMAN.

SEVERAL centuries ago the relations of the Russian people to the soil were of an uncertain nature. Institutions differed in different localities, and were somewhat unstable in many respects. Laveleye says of the customs prevailing as to land tenure: "The extent of unoccupied soil being very great, the settlers who brought it into cultivation acquired a life ownership, and, in fact, even a kind of hereditary right

in it." He records his conviction, however, that "common property was the rule."

There appear to have been domestic servants who were practically slaves, but the masses of the working people of the country were peasants and maintained an existence largely independent of the noblemen, who governed rather than owned the land. The descendants of nomadic tribes, these peasants had wandering impulses in their blood. If

the soil was exhausted in any place, they preferred to move on to virgin soil rather than to fertilize old fields. These migratory and wasteful tendencies did not suit the nobility, who were trying to settle themselves firmly and become powerful in their provinces. Doubtless these roaming habits interfered with arrangements which the governing classes thought important to the welfare of everybody concerned.

The belief in the necessity of binding the agricultural laborer to the land, is traceable throughout the history of land tenure in different countries and ages. It underlay the system which prevailed in Roman times of turning whole tribes of people into a species of peasant serfs, from whom the right of occupation in the land could not be taken, but who were not allowed to migrate or to cease to be cultivators of the ground.

Some German legislation repealed under Frederick the Great in 1807 and 1811 was based on a modification of the same idea. Until the edicts issued in these years, a nobleman could not become the owner of land that had belonged to a burgher nor could he acquire the possession of peasant land. Neither could a burgher or a peasant obtain by purchase or otherwise a title to land that had belonged to any class but his own. Thus the proportion of land belonging to each class had been kept the same.

Jules Fancher of Berlin thinks the migratory habits of the peasants in the middle ages were not so marked as has been claimed. He does not consider that these habits constituted a real menace to the welfare of the Russian state. He maintains indeed that the people were not then nomads but colonists, and says, "To colonize and to nomadize are two very different things." Villages sent out their members to form new villages and the older community was looked upon as the parent of the younger, and so the settlement of the whole country was effected. Whether Fancher's view, which rather justifies the propensities of the peasants and throws especial discredit on the czars and noblemen, be correct or not, the fact remains, that influenced by some motive either selfish or unselfish or mixed, the Czar Fedor Ivanovitch gave an order in 1592 which tended to attach the peasants to the soil. And it can hardly be doubted that many people in Russia that year thought that a great step had been taken toward the establishment of a well-ordered

state, wherein each rank of men should have an appointed place and perform a settled and necessary function. In reality this step was the beginning of serfdom.

The Czar Boris Godunoff published another edict on the 21st day of November, 1601, forbidding all peasants to change their dwelling place. Baron Haxthausen, a German writer who some forty years ago made an exhaustive study of Russian life, says: "After this epoch the peasants although personally free came under the authority of the lords or of the former proprietors, and later in the reign of Peter I. they became almost by chance, but in fact, complete serfs. I say in fact, because no positive ordinance ever established legal servitude." The day of Godunoff's edict was, the Baron says, a "day of sad memory" among the people.

It is worth while to reflect very seriously over this fact that servitude was never a legally established institution in Russia, and yet was such a logical, inevitable result of men's actions that millions of human beings were held in slavery for two hundred and fifty years, as a consequence of the growing power of rich people over poor ones.

Serfdom in Russia was never quite like negro slavery in the United States or in the colonies of Western Europe. The serf was not considered a chattel. The common way of designating the people on an estate was to speak of them as so many "souls," not so many "hands." The patriarchal relation, with all its kindly feelings, approaching to a sense of kindred blood, never quite died out of the bond between chiefs transformed into masters and their followers changed into serfs. The serfs could be sold with the land, and an edict issued by the Emperor Nicholas in 1848 to protect the peasants from tricks by which they had been sold illegally without the land, shows that their position as inalienable occupiers of the soil was often an insecure one. They were punished with the lash, and if traditions are correct it was possible for a master to put a serf to death and escape punishment, but still the inferior was not a piece of movable property on the estate.

Serfs were usually obliged to work for their lords three or four days in the week, and were permitted to till the soil for their own support the rest of the time. For the latter purpose they were given the use of a part of the land. The peasants considered this portion their own—an idea which was a mental

survival of the time when any one of God's children who would use the land He had provided for them, had a right to do so. After they were serfs, they used to say, "We belong to the lords, but the land belongs to us."

The serfs when they heard rumors of the coming emancipation of 1861 expected that the land would be divided with exact justice between them and the landlords. And their idea of exact justice in the division and use of land, was that each family should have a portion suited to its particular needs, so that the man who had the most children should have the most land on which to raise food for them. They still expect, according to Stepniak, that the government will redistribute the land.

When emancipation did take place under the Czar Alexander, various arrangements were made, to secure to the peasants the land that had formerly been allotted to their use by their masters, but, says Stepniak, "the enfranchised peasants received much less than they had previously enjoyed." The state peasants however received more land than the serfs of the nobility and are consequently more prosperous now.

Before examining further into the results of the emancipation upon the material welfare of the Russian peasantry it is necessary to make a brief study of some of their customs and institutions which existed during serfdom, and which have survived or been modified by its overthrow.

The patriarchal family was for a long time an important factor in Russian peasant life. Several generations of relatives used to live together under the authority of the oldest male member, who was called by a title signifying "The Big One." Occasionally a woman occupied this position. Daughters married out of the family. Sons brought their wives into it, and these wives were expected to labor hard. When a boy approached manhood it was the duty of the male and female "Big Ones" of the family to get him a wife, the combination of a man, a horse, and a woman being considered the practical "labor unit" in Russian agricultural life. As the wives were chosen more largely with reference to their working capacities than their personal charms, it often happened that women of mature age were married to little boys. This custom not only lessened the number of legitimate children

born among the peasantry, but proved to be a source of much immorality.

In recent years, the patriarchal family is ceasing to exist. Young couples go off by themselves to keep house. One of the reasons why the large families are now broken up is that since emancipation some new economical conditions have crept into the life of the peasantry. The portions of land allotted since emancipation have proved insufficient to support the families and to enable them to raise money to pay their taxes, which are very large. The bad government of Russia has moreover made the peasants the victims of all sorts of extortions on the part of officials. As a consequence the people have grown steadily poorer, and have become wage workers. The men go out from home to earn money. Their sore distress has taught them to look upon the possession of money as the thing that will save them from debt and from the lash of the tax collectors. These men are not willing in view of their own necessities to share their earnings with the other members of the family as the crops were formerly shared. The instinct of individual ownership has awakened in them and opposes the old brotherly feeling. So the wage earners gradually withdraw from the common household.

The village community in Russia is an institution of considerable antiquity. It is governed by a council made up of the heads of households, whether they be male or female. Slavonic writers believe that in this village community, or *mir* as it is called, is to be found the germ idea of the proper method by which mankind may be relieved from the evils of extreme poverty, and especially from that dread of an increase in population which renders the birth of children a source of sorrow rather than of joy.

In the Russian *mir*, the land is supposed to belong to the people composing the village association, and it is periodically distributed among the families according to a theory as to the needs of the families. This distribution is made by the council of the *mir*. The *mir* is responsible in its joint capacity to the government for both taxes and recruits, its existence as a legal institution being thus recognized.

It seems quite right to the Russian peasants that the man who needs the most should have the most land, and as needs vary from time to time, an occasional, not an inconveniently frequent redistribution of the land appears to

them a perfectly proper method in its management. They claim moreover that "if the husbandman discontinues his cultivation of his holding, he has no more right over it than the fisher over the sea, where he has fished."

But they do believe implicitly that a laborer has a right to the product of his labor, and hence if a man brings new land under tillage he receives from the mir a title to its undisturbed possession for a number of years, sufficient to remunerate him for the labor he has bestowed on it, and during this term he can let or dispose of its use, as he pleases. Villages which possess more land than is used at any given time provide for new households out of the unoccupied land, when a redistribution does not take place.

The Russian peasant feels that he owes a sort of religious loyalty to the mir. The constant necessity to practice toleration and conciliation imposed on the Russian peasants by the conditions of this communal association has developed in them a forbearing disposition. The decisions of the mir are reached by unanimous votes. The majority does not settle questions. Everybody must be brought into harmony, and so somebody must always yield. "Each for himself," they say when they speak of their lives outside of the communal aspect, "but God and the mir for all."

The authority of the mir extends to minor questions of justice. "With a Russian mir," says Stepniak, "the law is nowhere, the conscience everywhere." The bent of Russian genius is opposed to that acceptance of special injustice as the inevitable result of the operation of general laws. "These villages," continues Stepniak, "have to deal with living men, whom they know and love, and it is deeply repugnant to them to overshoot the mark, so much as a hair's breadth, for the sake of a dead abstraction—the law."

In their administration of affairs, these peasants have therefore proceeded at times according to ideas unrecognized by the Russian law. They believe the mir has rightful authority over all matters pertaining to peasant life. Stepniak gives as a curious illustration of this belief, an instance when a mir in 1884 gave a peasant whose wife had run away, permission to marry again, and pronounced the possible children of the new union legitimate, without any suspicion on the part of any one, that other authority was needed to dissolve the first marriage or legalize the second.

In respect to property, the mirs act on the fundamental principle that labor constitutes the sole title to possession or inheritance. The dwelling house of each family is not subject like the farming land to the communal ownership of the village, but is kept by inheritance in the family, as is movable and personal property. The Russian civil law gives to women only one fourteenth of the inheritance, but the mir portions out the shares to women on the same principle as to men, namely, according to the amount of labor each person has contributed to the general support of the household. A stepson, a son-in-law, an adopted child who has lived long enough in the family and has worked hard enough, has the same right to inherit as a legitimate son. The brother who has done the most work is supposed to deserve the largest share. The idea is so fully carried out that labor alone serves as a sufficient title to property, that an industrious concubine is held to have as good a right as a lawful wife in the family wealth.

The chief officer in the mir is a peasant, but since the emancipation, the central government in its mistaken zeal for systematizing and directing affairs, has forced upon the mirs some alien officials and certain regulations which distract and confuse the simple minds of the rustics, and have a demoralizing tendency, inasmuch as these strange officers and customs are not in harmony with the original character of the village organization.

The enormous taxes laid by the government on the land are driving the peasants out of their old communal life. Formerly, they clothed and fed themselves from the products of their land and did not sell their crops. Now, they must have money to pay for the use of the land, more in many cases than the produce of the land when sold will yield. They go out to earn money. They sell their cattle, and then cease practically to be tillers of the soil. They cannot carry on agricultural labors without cattle, yet they remain liable to the taxes for the portion of land they cannot use. The mir cannot help them, for the tax is laid by the general government, and the mir is itself responsible for the tax. "The inventory of horses taken in 1882 for military purposes shows that one fourth of the peasant households no longer possess horses at all."

The value to the peasant of his horse, and his need and willingness to sacrifice his own comfort to keep and care for the animal on

whom all his future chances depend, have been touchingly illustrated in a poem by Nekrasoff, which has received an English translation. It describes the home-coming of a peasant. He asks for drink; his wife tells him there is none, there is no fire, there is no bread. "It is all gone, darling," she says, "I've sent to the neighbors to ask for some, and they have promised to let us have a little by the dawn." To all this he answers gently that he can warm himself without spirit and without soup, but the horse must be warmed and fed, "a good feed of oats," and at last he says, "Well, and a poor sinner can sleep even if he has no bread; but, wife, lay down some straw for the horse; why, this very winter our bonny beast has drawn more than three hundred timber loads."

These lines contain a reference to the habit of sharing bread with their poorer neighbors, which the Russian peasants practice, as long as they have any bread to give. They even give bits from the pieces they have themselves received in charity. To be a professional beggar from idleness may be a disgrace, but to ask for bread in a season of distress is no shame, while to refuse it would be held to be a great sin. And the seasons of distress come often under the extortions of the government and its officials.

One of the most disastrous methods to which the peasant is driven in order to raise money under the new *régime* which makes money necessary, is to borrow it on terms which render payment nearly impossible. Frequently his agreement amounts to a mortgage on his own future labor, so binding and so hopeless that he becomes practically a serf again. This bondage for debt is called the

kabala, and it is eating out the strength and liberty of the people. The growing power of the rich over the poor once more threatens the welfare and freedom of the Russian peasantry, and is forcing their development out of its normal lines of growth. The temptation under which they live to sell themselves to the usurer and the landlord to escape from present evils, is shown by the fact that in one district in the province of Novgorod, one thousand five hundred peasants were condemned in 1885-86 to be flogged for non-payment of taxes. Moreover the statistics of food supply, of its export to other countries, of death and of birth indicate that large numbers of the people are perishing annually for lack of sufficient food.

The *mir* in its recognition of equal rights and social duties is an institution so thoroughly in harmony with the best and the most essentially national instincts of the Russian character, that the student of sociology must look with a serious questioning upon all forces inimical to its continued existence, to the activity of the principle on which it is founded, and the natural extension of that principle into the national life.

Stepniak concludes his remarkable study of the Russian peasantry with a chapter entitled "The Tragedy of Russian History," and this is his final paragraph: "As to her polity as a nation among nations, Russia can be great otherwise than by her size, if only political freedom walks hand in hand with the growth of those ideals of labor which spring from the collective aspirations of her people. We are not European enough successfully to imitate a progress based upon the fruition of individual labor."

THE BICHLORIDE OF GOLD CURE.

BY JOHN R. BARLOW.

AT Dwight, Illinois, a small country village, there are congregated twelve hundred men—all of them being patients of Dr. Keeley—who are undergoing the bichloride of gold treatment for their addiction to the whisky, morphine, opium, cocaine, or tobacco habit. Dr. Keeley believes that drunkenness is a disease, and that it can be cured by the use of medicine the same as other diseases—scarlet fever, diphtheria, and

typhoid fever—are cured. He claims that he can heal ninety-five per cent of those who go to him for treatment; and his claim is corroborated by statistics.

The course of treatment begins immediately on the arrival of the patient. Indeed, should the case be rather a bad one an attendant is at the train to assist the patient to the institute, where a diagnosis of his case is taken. He is given a hypodermic injection of red,

pink, and white liquids in the fleshy part of the arm between the elbow and shoulder. No matter how aggravated the case may be, in two hours the patient experiences a decided change. If he desires whisky, it is given him in moderate quantities, the amount being lessened, until invariably at the end of the third day he ceases taking it of his own volition.

A powerful tonic is also given, the ingredients of which some say are arsenic, strychnine, belladonna, cinchona, atropia, alcohol, opium, and morphine. What it really does contain is not known. It is exceedingly bitter, and its foundation is supposed to be bichloride of gold. It produces a vigorous appetite, brings refreshing sleep to the patient's confused brain, and entirely destroys the craving for drink. It is taken every two hours while the patient is awake.

Hypodermic treatment is given at the institute four times a day. The patients are formed into a line in which every one meets his neighbor as an equal. No partiality is shown. The rich and poor touch elbows, and every face bears the impress of a new hope.

A word may not be amiss concerning the effect of the gold treatment during a stay at Dwight and the condition of the system at its completion.

During the first three days peculiar and trying sensations are experienced. The continual puncturing of the arm renders it sensitive and gradually a hard spot about the size of a walnut appears. It is only with an effort that the patient can raise the arm from the side; the eyes become affected, in some cases to absolute blindness; the memory is impaired, as the following incident in the case of one patient will show. He asked the manager of the hotel if he could have a couple of friends come to spend Sunday with him. Being answered in the affirmative he requested a telegraph blank. It was given him. He stood for half an hour thinking, and finally handed the blank back to the clerk, saying, "I guess I won't telegraph now. I cannot think who it was to whom I wanted to send the message."

In a few days these conditions disappear and the benefits of the gold remedy become apparent. At the end of the treatment a complete renovation has taken place. A person addicted to alcohol has twisted and confused ideas on all subjects. Keep liquor away from such a person twenty-one days and

he will be half dead, but a bichloride of gold patient after twenty-one days' treatment seems to have a new hold on life. His complexion is clear, the bloated and careworn expression is gone, and instead of being an irritable, unreasonable person he becomes a pleasant and agreeable companion.

If an habitual drunkard should abstain from whisky for this length of time, disease might follow, or even death. But with the gold cure the abstinence brings vigor and courage, and the man becomes fully capable of performing the work of life. Such results as these are practical and show something tangible to work on.

A stay of twenty-one days in most cases is sufficient to effect a cure. Others require four and five weeks.

The utmost freedom is allowed patients. No restrictions are placed on their liberty, the only requirement being that all act the part of gentlemen. In no place in the world does one see such good fellowship as here. One is not scorned for what he has done, but instead sympathetic hearts and willing hands encourage and help the weak of spirit to a future that unfolds itself toward a life of manhood, sobriety, and usefulness. It is truly said by many, that this very fellow-feeling is of great help in making the bichloride of gold perform its work effectively.

Many peculiar and interesting incidents are related showing the enthusiasm of persons who have been there for treatment. One generous man in Illinois returning home put a standing offer in the local paper that any man in the town addicted to the use of liquor, and desiring to be cured, might come to him and he would furnish the money to get this treatment, with no security at all. He said that if a man had nerve enough to go he would risk the result in any case. This gentleman is at the present time paying for the treatment of a dozen men, and his faith in bichloride of gold is unabated.

The Bichloride of Gold Club of Chicago has sent upward of three hundred men to Dwight. The club gathers in men in all stages of drunkenness and becomes responsible for their treatment; in no case so far has their confidence in the treatment been shattered, and in every instance the outlay has been returned shortly after the cure was made.

The effects of alcohol on the system from a physiological point of view as gathered from

the reports of authorities upon the subject and presented in an outline in the circulars of the Dwight Institution, are substantially as follows: Alcohol taken into the body enters the blood from the stomach without digestion and reaches every nerve of the body. After having entered the blood, it undergoes oxidation and is burned up. A simple experiment shows its work on the nerve tissues. Take the white of an egg, put it in a glass and beat it up; add a little alcohol and the albumen coagulates and becomes hard. As the nerve tissues of the body are for the major part albuminous, alcohol affects them in a similar manner and this forms what is known as the preliminary step to chronic alcoholism. In this condition alcohol is required to spur up the nerves to perform their duty, so deadened have they become.

The human system will admit of the oxidation of about six ounces of alcohol in twenty-four hours, but its effect when consumed by contact with oxygen in the organs of the body is the same as when burned in a lamp; heat is the result; and when alcohol is taken to excess the man has a living fire within himself. Millions of the tissue molecules of the body are destroyed. A few

hours' rest would restore the waste by new material from the blood; but if in this condition a moderate amount of alcohol be taken, it seems to lessen the fatigue because the albuminous portion of the tissues becomes hardened; thus the habit grows and the man becomes wholly dependent upon stimulant.

In considering alcoholism a disease, it is said that it permeates the system with a wavelike tendency, rising and falling in a manner characteristic to the temperament of the individual, and as long as this continues, the craving for stimulant remains. The object to be accomplished is the breaking of this wavelike tendency. Once broken, the patient is free for all time to come. Bichloride of gold does this, and puts a man in the condition in which he was before he ever tasted a drop of liquor.

A meeting is to be held shortly in Chicago which will be the most remarkable gathering known in our history. Delegates from every state in the Union, all former patients of Dwight, will meet to devise ways for making it possible for the worst and most helpless cases to obtain the bichloride of gold treatment. A grand gathering it will be, and it cannot fail to do a world of practical good.

POETRY AND ELOQUENCE.

BY JOHN BURROUGHS.

"**W**HERE does eloquence end, where does poetry begin?" inquires Renan in his "Future of Science." And he goes on to say, "The whole difference lies in a peculiar harmony, in a more or less sonorous ring, with regard to which an experienced faculty never hesitates."

Is not the "sonorous ring" however more characteristic of eloquence than of poetry? Poetry does begin where eloquence ends; it is a higher and finer harmony. Nearly all men feel the power of eloquence, but poetry does not sway the multitude, it does not sway at all, it lifts and illuminates and soothes. It reaches the spirit while eloquence stops with the reason and the emotions.

Eloquence is much the more palpable, real, available; it is a wind that fills every sail and makes every mast bend, while poetry is a breeze touched with a wild perfume from field

or wood. Poetry is consistent with perfect tranquillity of spirit; a true poem may have the calm of a summer day, the placidity of a mountain lake, but eloquence is a torrent, a tempest, mass in motion, an army with banners, the burst of a hundred instruments of music. Tennyson's "Maud" is a notable blending of the two.

There is something martial in eloquence, the roll of the drum, the cry of the fife, the wheel and flash of serried ranks. Its end is action, it shapes events, it takes captive the reason and the understanding. Its basis is earnestness, vehemence, depth of conviction.

There is no eloquence without heat, and no poetry without light. An earnest man is more or less an eloquent man. Eloquence belongs to the world of actual affairs and events; it is aroused by great wrongs and great dangers, it flourishes in the forum and the senate.

Poetry is more private and personal, is more for the soul and the religious instincts; it courts solitude and wooes the ideal.

Anything swiftly told or described, the sense of speed and volume is, or approaches, eloquence; while anything heightened and deepened, any meaning and beauty suddenly revealed, is, or approaches poetry. Hume says of the eloquence of Demosthenes, "It is rapid harmony, exactly adjusted to the sense. It is vehement reasoning without any appearance of art; it is disdain, anger, boldness, freedom, involved in a continual stream of argument."

The passions of eloquence and poetry differ in this respect—one is reason inflamed, the other is imagination kindled.

Any object of magnitude in swift motion, a horse at the top of his speed, a regiment of soldiers on the double quick, a train of cars under full way, moves us in a way that the same object at rest does not. The great secret of eloquence is to set mass in motion, to marshal together facts and considerations, imbue them with passion, and hurl them like an army on the charge upon the mind of the reader or hearer.

The pleasure we derive from eloquence is more acute, more physiological, I might say, more of the blood and animal spirits than our pleasure from poetry. I imagine it was almost a dissipation to have heard a man like Father Taylor. One's feelings and emotions were all out of their banks like the creeks in spring. But this was largely the result of his personal magnetism and vehemence of utterance.

The contrast between eloquent prose and poetic prose would be more to the point. The pleasure from each is precious and genuine, but our pleasure from the latter is no doubt more elevated and enduring.

Gibbon's prose is often eloquent, never poetical. Ruskin's prose is at times both, though his temperament is not that of the orator. There is more caprice than reason in him. The prose of De Quincey sometimes has the "sonorous ring" of which Renan speaks. The following passage from his essay on "The Philosophy of Roman History" is a good sample:

"The battle of Actium was followed by the final conquest of Egypt. That conquest rounded and integrated the glorious empire; it was now circular as a shield, orbicular as the disk of a planet; the great Julian arch was now locked

into the cohesion of granite by its last keystone. From that day forward, for three hundred years, there was silence in the world; no muttering was heard; no eye winked beneath the wing. Winds of hostility might still rave at intervals; but it was on the outside of the mighty empire; it was at a dreamlike distance; and, like the storms that beat against some monumental castle, 'and at the doors and windows seem to call,' they rather irritated and vivified the sense of security, than at all disturbed its luxurious lull."

Contrast with this a passage from Emerson's first prose work, "Nature," wherein the poetic element is more conspicuous:

"The poet, the orator, bred in the woods, whose senses have been nourished by their fair and appeasing changes, year after year, without design and without heed,—shall not lose their lesson altogether, in the roar of cities or the broil of politics. Long hereafter, amidst agitation and terror in national councils,—in the hour of revolution,—these solemn images shall reappear in their morning luster, as fit symbols of words, of the thoughts which the passing events shall awaken. At the call of a noble sentiment, again the woods wave, the pines murmur, the river rolls and shines, and the cattle low upon the mountains, as he saw and heard them in his infancy. And with these forms, the spells of persuasion, the keys of power are put into his hands."

Or this passage from Carlyle's "French Revolution," shall we call it eloquent prose or poetic prose?

"In this manner, however, has the Day bent downwards. Wearied mortals are creeping home from their field labors; the village artisan eats with relish his supper of herbs, or has strolled forth to the village street for a sweet mouthful of air and human news. Still summer eventide everywhere! The great sun hangs flaming on the uttermost northwest; for it is his longest day this year. The hilltops rejoicing will ere long be at their ruddiest, and blush good-night. The thrush in green dells, on long-shadowed leafy spray, pours gushing his glad serenade, to the babble of brooks grown audible; silence is stealing over the Earth."

What noble eloquence in Tacitus! Indeed eloquence was natural to the martial and world-subduing Roman; but his poetry is for the most part of a secondary order. It is often said of French poetry that it is more eloquent than poetic. Of English poetry the reverse is probably true, though of such a poet as Byron it seems to me that eloquence is the chief characteristic.

Byron never, to my notion, touches the deeper and finer poetic chords. He is witty, he is brilliant, he is eloquent, but is he ever truly poetical? He stirs the blood, he kindles the fancy, but does he ever diffuse through the soul the joy and the light of pure poetry? Goethe expressed almost unbounded admiration for Byron, yet admitted that he was too worldly minded, and that a great deal of his poetry should have been fired off in Parliament in the shape of parliamentary speeches. Wordsworth, on the other hand, when he was not prosy and heavy, was poetical, he was never eloquent.

A fine sample of eloquence in poetry is Browning's "How they brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix." Of its kind there is nothing in the language to compare with it. One needs to read such a piece occasionally as a moral sanitary measure; it aerates his emotions as a cataract does a creek. Scott's highest excellence as a poet is his eloquence. The same is true of Campbell, though the latter's "To the Rainbow" breathes the spirit of true poetry.

Among our own poets Halleck's "Marco Bozzaris" thrills us with its fiery eloquence. Dr. Holmes' "Old Ironsides" also is just what such a poem should be, just what the occasion called for, a rare piece of rhymed eloquence.

Eloquence is so good, so refreshing, it is such a noble and elevating excitement, that one would fain have more of it even in poetry. It is too rare and precious a product to be valued lightly.

Here is a brief sample of Byron's eloquence :

"There, where death's brief pang was quickest,
And the battle's wreck lay thickest,
Strewed beneath the advancing banner
Of the eagles' burning crest—
There with thunder-clouds to fan her
Victory beaming from her breast!
While the broken line enlarging
Fell, or fled along the plain;—
There be sure *Murat* was charging!
There he ne'er shall charge again!"

This from Tennyson is of another order :

"Thy voice is heard through rolling drums
That beat to battle where he stands;
Thy face across his fancy comes,
And gives the battle to his hands:
A moment, while the trumpets blow,
He sees his brood about thy knee;
The next, like fire, he meets the foe,
And strikes him dead for thine and thee."

The chief value of all patriotic songs and poems, like Mrs. Howe's "Battle Hymn of the Republic," or Mr. Stedman's John Brown poem, or Randall's "Maryland," or Burns' "Bannockburn," or Whitman's "Beat! Beat! Drums," is their impassioned eloquence. Patriotism, war, wrong, slavery, these are the inspirers of eloquence.

Of course no sharp line can be drawn between eloquence and poetry; they run together, they blend in all first-class poems; yet there is a wide difference between the two and it is probably in the direction I have indicated. Power and mastery in either field are the most precious of human gifts.

HOW THE BLIND ARE TAUGHT.

BY JOHN P. RITTER.

IT is the popular opinion that the blind are taught to read and cipher by means of a raised alphabet similar to that used by the seeing, but such is not the case. A system of raised points or dots has been perfected, based upon scientific principles, which has greatly facilitated their education.

The first intelligent effort to educate the blind was made in 1784 by Valentin Haüy, a Frenchman. Before his time they were entirely dependent upon their friends or public charity for support. Since he demonstrated that they are capable of receiving instruction

and becoming self-supporting, a deeper interest has been taken in their welfare, and schools have been established for their special training in every civilized part of the world.

In Europe there are between eighty and ninety institutions for the blind; in the United States, twenty-eight; in Canada and Nova Scotia, three; in Mexico, one. Several thriving schools exist in the South American states and in Australia. Similar establishments have been founded in China and Japan; so that one of the most beneficent enterprises of modern civilization has been

advanced into every continent save Africa.

For the purpose of ascertaining the practical results of education, as shown by the blind after leaving school, a committee was appointed, several years ago, by the American Association of Instructors of the Blind, to compile a table setting forth the various occupations they pursued. The following statement, taken from the committee's report, includes only those educated in American institutions:

Superintendents of institutions for the blind, 16; superintendents of orphan asylums, 6; teachers of literature in schools other than for the blind, 49; teachers of literature or music in schools for the blind, 115; otherwise employed in schools for the blind, 39; teachers in public schools, 13; students attending colleges or theological seminaries, 10; graduates from colleges and theological seminaries, 18; ministers, 36; studying or practicing law, 5; justice of the peace, 1; editors, 2; authors, 17; publishers, 8; agents and lecturers, 70; teachers of music elsewhere than at institutions, 463; church organists, 88; piano tuners, 125; composers and publishers of music, 14; teachers of handicraft in institutions, 20; engaged in manufacturing, 305; working at handicraft, 702; store-keeping and trading, 269; owning and managing real estate, 59; sawing and lumbering, 7; farmers, 59; teachers and operators of knitting machines, 3; employed by sewing machine companies, 2; hotel-keeper, 1; house-keepers, 205; insurance brokers, 2; newspaper venders, 7; physicians and medical students, 6; stock operator, 1; dealers in musical instruments, 6; carpenter, 1; employed in printing office, 2; employed in sash and blind factory, 1; florist, 1; switch tenders, 2; cabinet makers, 2; mail contractors and carriers, 2; assistant in restaurant, 1; sailor and cook, 1; horse dealers, 9; usefully employed at home, 666.

The information here given shows that there is a wide range of pursuits in which the educated blind may promote their own welfare, while contributing at the same time to the comfort and well-being of society. It affords also conclusive evidence of the good accomplished by institutions founded for their special training.

Although to Valentin Haüy must be attributed the initial step in rendering the blind useful members of the community, he was not the first who was solicitous regarding their welfare. The first known asylum for the blind was founded at Paris in the year 1260 by Louis IX., or St. Louis, and was called the *Hospice des Quinze Vingts*. It was merely a refuge for blind soldiers, however, and was in no sense an educational school. The earliest suggestion that the blind might be educated was ventured in a pamphlet published in 1670 by Lana Terzi, a Jesuit of Brescia, who had already written an essay on the instruction of deaf-mutes. Nearly a century later, the Abbé Deschamps and Diderot proposed plans for their instruction in reading and writing; but it was not until Haüy

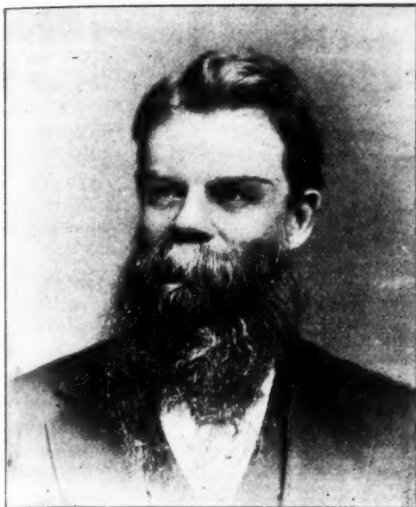
began his labors that any practical results were accomplished. His first pupil was a beggar, named Leseur, who afterwards became instrumental in promoting the education of his fellow unfortunates. Haüy succeeded in teaching him to distinguish raised letters, arithmetical figures, and outline maps. He then exhibited him before the members of the *Société Philanthropique* in Paris.

At that time the mutterings of the

storm that was soon to sweep over France—the whirlwind of the Revolution—were plainly distinguishable along the horizon of the future. The grandees in their palaces trembled at the sounds, and sought to avert the disaster by feigning an interest in the



Perkins Institution and Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind.



William B. Wait. Perfectioner of Point-Print Alphabet and System of Musical Notation.

down-trodden poor, made desperate by centuries of oppression. Charity became the fashion, and the rich vied with each other in making an ostentatious display of benevolence.

Hailly's idea was novel, and was quickly taken up. A small house was furnished at No. 18, *Notre Dame des Victoires*, in Paris, and funds enough were contributed to maintain twelve pupils. Before the year was out, the number was increased to twenty-four. Under his instructions they improved so rapidly that he was finally induced to exhibit them before Louis XVI. and his court.

In 1791 his school was taken under the patronage of the state, and after the establishment of the empire was transferred to the *Hospice des Quinze Vingts*. Here the pupils became demoralized by associating with the inmates of that institution, and Hailly's efforts were for a time paralyzed. He therefore directed his energies into channels outside of France, and at the invitation of Alexander I. visited Russia and founded an institution for the blind in St. Petersburg. He was afterwards instrumental in founding a similar institution in Berlin. In 1814 the French government assigned to Hailly's school separate quarters, and the title of "Royal Institution for the Blind."

The first English school for the blind was founded at Liverpool in 1791. In 1793 similar

schools were established at Bristol and Edinburgh. The first institution established in the United States was the "Perkins Institution and Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind" in 1829. At least that is the title by which it is now known. Its location is at Boston, and it can claim the distinction of having evolved one of the greatest marvels of the century,—Laura Bridgman.

The New York Institution for the Blind was the second American school, and was founded in 1831. Mr. William B. Wait, the present superintendent, profiting by the experiments of others, and after a lifetime spent in prosecuting special investigations, has succeeded in inventing or rather evolving an alphabet, founded on physiological principles, which not only can be read with facility, but be written by the blind. As its basis is purely mathematical, it also admits the writing and reading of music. But before explaining Mr. Wait's method, it would be well to review the means of education in the useful and manual arts, as practiced in the New York Institution for the Blind and other institutions. It is the general practice to instruct the larger girls in needlework and the use of the sewing machine, and the boys in the art of music and in the tuning of pianos. The little ones are given a kindergarten course.

The kindergarten apartment is oblong in shape, and a long table extends crosswise



Stephen Babcock. A Blind Instructor of the Blind at the New York Institution.



In the Sewing Room of the New York Institution for the Blind.

from wall to wall. Around it sit the children, their ages varying from five to seven years. They are working in a mass of soft clay.

That children, totally blind from infancy, should have conceived such accurate ideas of external objects by the sense of touch alone is truly remarkable. By presenting to them objects accurately modeled they are taught to know what form and extent mean.

In the sewing room there are six machines which the girls take turns in learning to use. While one set are at the machines, the other girls are engaged in hand sewing and embroidery. There is a large glass case at one end of the room which contains many fine specimens of their handiwork.

Returning to the systems that have been in vogue from the days of Valentin Haüy to the present time: Haüy's alphabet was the Roman scrip in relief. It was written clumsily upon parchment, or coarse paper, the material employed being a thick mucilaginous substance that adhered to the sheet, while, at the same time, presenting a raised surface that could be traced by the fingers. Many years later—from the best information I have received, about 1832—Gall, Allston, and Frye suggested, at nearly the same time, the use of Roman capital and lower case block letters. Dr. Samuel G. Howe, of Boston, took up the idea and improved upon it. He modified the alphabet so that the letters had an angular formation.

a b c d e f g h i
l k l m n o p q r
s t u v w x y z.

Dr. Howe's Alphabet for the Blind.

In the meantime a Frenchman, Charles Barbier, had invented an alphabet of points on a vertical type. This was about 1825. His device consisted of raised points made on stiff paper. In his alphabet he employed twelve points, the letters being distinguished one from another by the various modifications these points could be made to assume.

Braille, himself a blind man, who had studied Barbier's system, reduced it by one half, so that six points and their modifica-

tions became the recognized alphabet for the blind in France. He also devised a simple form of musical notation. This system is still used in many European schools.

Mr. Wait's invention is based upon Braille's point-print alphabet of six raised points; but instead of being stamped vertically on the sheet, the dots are stamped horizontally, a series of experiments having proved that this arrangement of the characters can be read with greater facility.

The following is Mr. Wait's alphabet:

CAPITAL LETTERS.

A	B	C	D	E
° °	° ° °	° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° °
F	G	H	I	J
° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °
K	L	M	N	O
° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °
P	Q	R	S	T
° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °
U	V	W	X	Y
° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °	° ° ° °
	Z			
	° ° ° °			

It would require considerable space to explain the principle governing this alphabet of capitals. It will be sufficient to state, therefore, that the capitals are derived from the small letters.

SMALL LETTERS.

a	b	c	d	e	f
° °	° ° °	° ° °	° °	°	° ° °
g	h	i	j	k	l
° ° °	° ° °	°	° ° °	° ° °	° °
m	n	o	p	q	r
° °	° °	°	° ° °	° ° °	° °
s	t	u	v	w	x
° °	°	° ° °	° ° °	° °	° ° °
	y	z			
	° °	° ° °			



Clay Models made by Blind Children.

We come now to the root of the matter. In the smaller alphabet, every character is given its just value according to a system of arithmetical progression. The recurrence of letters in written language is the governing idea. For example: *e* and *i*, which recur most frequently, are represented by a single point or dot; in the first instance, stamped above an imaginary line; in the second, below it. Two dots are next employed, and, after their several modifications have been exhausted, three dots are brought into play. They, in turn, are superseded by four, and so on.

It may be asked, why should an arbitrary system of points be adopted when raised letters, that correspond in form to those used by the seeing, would seem to be sufficient? Only those who have struggled with the problem of furnishing the blind with a tangible alphabet can give a satisfactory answer to this question. A letter is composed of straight lines, curves, or angles, and presents several parts to the appreciation of the sense of touch. Now, the sense of touch differs so greatly in individual cases, that a raised surface which can be traced rapidly and accurately by some, fails utterly to excite any definite sensibility in others. A dot, which presents but a single point of contact to the sensory nerves, can be comprehended by all. But as it requires a combination of several dots to form an alphabet, the dot, or point-print system, invented by Barbier and modified by Braille, was found to be almost as difficult to teach as raised letters.

These were the landmarks that guided Mr. Wait on his voyage of investigation. "I found," he said to the writer, "that the

ordinary raised alphabet, even when simplified, required of the pupil exquisite sensibility of touch and a quick intelligence. I visited many schools and examined the pupils; but in every instance found not more than two or three scholars in a hundred who were apt. Others could read slowly, and a large percentage not at all. I became convinced that a 'raised alphabet,' corresponding to the alphabet of the seeing, was not adapted to the purposes of the blind. I was familiar with Braille's system, and it offered me a suggestion.

"Knowing that the sense of touch is exquisitely developed in the blind, I came to the conclusion that there must be some parts of the body more lively to the sensation of contact than others. While pursuing my investigations, I came across some interesting observations made by Professor Weber, a German scientist. He had completed an elaborate series of experiments regarding the sensibility of different parts of the body. His method was to touch the surface of the skin with the legs of a pair of compasses, the points of which were guarded by minute pieces of cork. The eyes of the person who was being operated upon were closed in every case. Gradually the legs of the compasses were approximated to each other, until they were brought to the smallest distance at which they could be felt to be distinct from one another, which has been termed by Dr. Graves 'the limit of confusion.'"

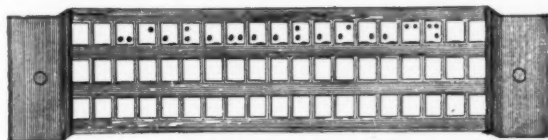
The following are some of the results of Professor Weber's experiments: It was ascertained that when the points were separated one half a line, or one twenty-fourth of an inch apart, they could be distinguished at the

tip of the tongue only. On the palmar surface of the third phalanx of the forefinger two sensations were experienced one line apart; on the second phalanx, two lines apart; on the third phalanx, three lines apart.

For practical purposes, the limit of the discriminating power of the tactual sense may be taken to be one line, or one twelfth of an inch. Should the separating space be less than this, confusion is the result. It is a curious fact that the distance between the legs of the compasses seemed to be greater (although really so much less) when it was felt by the more sensitive parts, than when it was estimated by parts of less distinct sensibility. With the extremities of the fingers and the point of the tongue the distance could be distinguished most easily in the longitudinal direction. It may be inferred, therefore, that the necessary quality in any raised alphabet is that which conforms in its structure to physiological conditions, and to the laws which govern the normal action and proper use of the tactual and muscle senses. Hence Mr. Wait's system of point-print letters is made up of dots placed one line, or one twelfth of an inch, apart and running in a longitudinal direction in order to conform to the foregoing principles.

The writing is produced by a stencil upon stiff paper especially prepared for the purpose. The writer makes his indentations upon the back of the sheet from right to left, so that when the paper is turned over to bring the raised dots uppermost, the writing appears in its natural order from left to right. By passing the forefinger over these raised dots, a blind person can read with comparative facility.

When writing, a guide is used to keep the dots in their proper position. The following cut represents the guide employed by Mr. Wait's pupils, showing the word INSTITUTION as it appears when written :



When the paper is turned over for reading it appears thus :

I n s t i t u t i o n
 0000 00 0 0 0 0 000 0 0 0 0

The same system of raised points is adapted to the reading and writing of music, and also to mathematical calculations. In arithmetic the numerals are as follows :

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0
 00 00 00 00 00 00 0 0 0 0

These characters, combined with point-print letters, form the basis of algebraic symbols. For plus, the letter *p* is written; for minus, or subtract, the letter *s*; for multiply by, *m*; for the radical sign, *rad*, etc. To indicate the power to which a quantity is to be raised, write after the quantity, *pr*, followed by the number indicating the power. It has been found of great advantage to have the pupils write out their lessons in every branch of study. These manuscripts are afterwards bound in order to be preserved. A pupil may, while prosecuting his studies, collect quite a valuable library for future reference; for books made in this manner will endure constant use for years. There are two branches of study for which the blind are peculiarly adapted—music and mathematics. In music they have made wonderful progress, and many noted musicians have been blind men.

Mr. Wait has invented a system of musical notation that is held to be the best system that can be employed for the blind. It took him years of the hardest labor to bring it to its present condition.

At tuning pianos the blind are exceedingly expert. It seems that with the loss of the sense of sight, that of hearing becomes so acute that they can distinguish the slightest variation of tone and pitch. For this reason they are sure to make a good living in the outside world if they apply themselves to learning this trade. There are large tuning rooms in the institutions both at New York and Boston, well supplied with pianos. The boys may be seen in them at all hours of the day, tuning fork in hand, practicing their trade.

One of Mr. Wait's pupils, Henry Tschudi, a blind lad of eighteen years, can perform most difficult compositions on the organ, transferring his hands from keyboard to keyboard, using the stops with taste and precision, and running along the foot-pedals with perfect fearlessness.

Among the noted blind mathematicians

there is one gentleman, Mr. Stephen Babcock, who has taught the blind in the New York Institution for many years past.

The case of Saunderson, who lost his sight at two years of age, and late in life became Professor of Mathematics at Cambridge, is historical. It is said of him that he could distinguish genuine medals from imitations more accurately than many connoisseurs in full possession of their senses.

The most noted blind man in America is probably Lewis B. Carll, the author of "A Treatise on the Calculus of Variations," a work which created a deep impression among mathematicians, both in this country and abroad. Few of the learned men who praised the book for its lucidity knew of the difficulties under which the author had labored. It took him about ten years to complete this admirable work.

"After I had determined on the task," said Mr. Carll, "I became aware that many obstacles were to be overcome. First among them was the difficulty of obtaining a competent reader. While I was at school and during my college course, the different members of my family took turns in reading my lessons aloud to me, while I transcribed them into the point-print alphabet invented by Mr. Wait. It became necessary for me to enlist the members of my family in this new enterprise. I got them to take turns in translating the French and German writings that I had obtained with difficulty from various sources; and I transcribed the most im-

portant passages into the point-print. Thus in six or seven years I compiled a vast quantity of materials which I could go over and classify at leisure. Every problem and demonstration I was careful to copy and verify.

"Although I, like most blind persons,

can carry a long sequence of mathematical deductions in my head, I prefer always to work it out upon paper. But the point-print alphabet makes no provision for the arbitrary symbols of higher algebra. I was compelled, therefore, to invent combinations of dots that would clearly express these symbols. It took me a long time to get up a satisfactory system. After I had collected sufficient material, and had worked out innumerable problems, I began my book. A brother acted as my amanuensis, I dictating from my point-print notes, which nobody



Reading Music by Touch.

under the sun could read but myself, and he writing from my dictation with the utmost care. For three years we continued this work together, and at the end of that period the work was finished. It was a tremendous undertaking, and I was glad when it was accomplished."

A short personal sketch of Mr. Carll may not be amiss here. Lewis B. Carll was born at Whitestone, Long Island, June 15, 1843. He was born blind. When he was eleven years old, he was sent to the New York Institution for the Blind at Ninth Avenue and Thirty-fourth Street. Here he remained seven years, during which time he showed such a marked inclination for study, that it

was resolved to give him a thorough classical education, with the view of fitting him for the profession of tutor. He was sent, therefore, to the Fairfield Academy, at Flushing, L. I., to prepare himself for college. In 1866, he entered Columbia and graduated from that university in 1870. Seth Low, now the president of the college, graduated first in the class. The second honors were awarded to Mr. Carll. Since the publication of his book, he has cherished the idea of writing a history of the rise and progress of mathematics. It is confidently hoped he may be able to carry out his plan. He is now in-

structor in mathematics in Columbia College.

I have endeavored to point out the principles applicable to the construction of a tangible alphabet for the blind. These principles constitute the standard by which all future alphabets must be governed. So far the Wait point-print alphabet appears to have produced the best results. Yet the subject is worthy the further attention of educators of the blind and the consideration of philanthropists everywhere. Much has been accomplished, but much may yet be done by the science of contrivance and the perfectness of mechanical skill.



A Blind Boy Learning Piano-Tuning.
In the Tuning Room of the New York Institution.

Woman's Council Table.



Mrs. Flora Best Harris.

Author of "A Glance into Little China," "Rabboni," etc.
Translator of "Log of a Japanese Journey."



Miss Helen Frances Shedd.

Author of "Development of Our Industries through Patents."



Miss Virna Woods.

Author of "The Amazons, A Lyrical Drama," "At Eventide," "Infinity," "On Shore," etc.



Miss Kate Carnes.

Author of "A Heroine of Our Day," "Homesteads for Women," "Our Indian Tribes," etc.

A GROUP OF OUR CONTRIBUTORS.

Woman's Council Table.

LADY HENRY SOMERSET.

BY FRANCES E. WILLARD.

President of the World's W. C. T. U.

AMERICA is this year treated to a genuine sensation. Intelligent persons have read so much English history, romance, and poetry that they have a mental conception of the British aristocracy, and little as they may be inclined to admit it, they have a well-defined interest and profound curiosity concerning any specimen of that surprising genus. The associations of such characters are so remote from our own, the prejudices against them flow so strongly with our blood (an inheritance from ancestors who for generations looked upon these men and women as their bitterest enemies), that it is a moment fraught with considerable inward confusion in which a good, upright, and downright Yankee grasps the hand of "the daughter of an hundred earls" and stammers out, "How do you do, Mrs. Somerset?"

The lady who has been often thus addressed, when her real title is Lady Henry Somerset in full, who always hears the designation with a most beaming smile and not the slightest suspicion of never having heard it before until she reached these shores in last October, puts to rout all our preconceived ideas about nobility. Her principal residence is at Eastnor Castle, one of the finest show places in England, said to be out-ranked only by Warwick and Chatsworth. Twenty-five thousand acres of land belonging to her, surround this grand ancestral home.

One hundred and twenty-five thousand people live on her property in the city of London, and she owns the town of Reigate, where she has another beautiful residence, besides a third in London.

One of her ancestors, Lord Somers, was Chancellor of the Exchequer in the reign of William III. and was mainly instrumental in securing the Protestant succession. Her father, Earl Somers, was in the House of Lords, like his ancestors before him. Her great-grandmother was maid of honor to Marie Antoinette, her sister is the Duchess of Bedford, and her only child the prospective heir to the great dukedom of Beaufort, descending in a direct line from the Plantagenets.

But this noble lady, who has had all that

rank, wealth, culture, travel, and this world's widest opportunities can give, has not the slightest trace of knowing that all these things are so. Inheriting beauty, besides being one of the two greatest heiresses in England, Lady Henry Somerset has none of the arts that handsome women almost invariably cultivate. Every movement is full of grace and her bearing portrays her as being at once a woman of elegant and refined culture; while her sweet voice and beautiful enunciation of English are in themselves a charm that would hold the American audiences gathered by thousands to hear her, if no other spell had been laid upon brain, heart, or conscience. But Lady Henry Somerset has a native eloquence that rises, when she is deeply moved, to as great a height as has been witnessed in any woman orator on either side the sea. She is as perfectly at home on the platform as in the parlor, and with the greatest gentleness but an equally indomitable spirit declares the faith that is within her.

She holds evangelistic meetings among the miners and in the slums of London. To her home at Eastnor Castle she invites the poor of the great city one hundred miles away, entertaining not infrequently in her beautiful park seven thousand of them at a time. She has eight church livings at her disposal; that is, the life positions of as many clerical gentlemen are dependent only upon her choice. Although confirmed in the Church of England when a child, she says that her deepest sympathies are with the White Ribbon movement, the Methodist Church, and the Salvation Army. She is as gifted with her pen as with her voice, her speeches, essays, and paragraphs being models of choice English.

She goes a great deal among her tenantry, and if her generosity toward them were recorded, the help she gives them and their young people in getting started in life, the book would be one of golden deeds. "Lady Henry Somerset is a whole fresh air mission in herself," was the verdict of one whom she had helped.

At one of her residences, Reigate, twenty-

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five miles from London, Lady Henry has founded a home for friendless children, many of whom she has personally rescued from the slums of London. She has built a chapel, reading room, and restaurant in the midst of her London tenantry, and frequently holds meetings there.

Lady Henry Somerset was married in 1871 to Lord Henry Somerset, son of the Duke of Beaufort. He was for some years Comptroller of the Queen's Household. She spent much of her time at Court, but she never was a gay, unthinking lady of society.

When great state balls were given she returned home at twelve o'clock, about the hour when the most fashionable were just arriving. Always devoted to books and charity, she found her satisfaction outside the whirl of conventional circles, and mingled in them only because her station rendered it necessary.

In 1885 a great seriousness fell upon her, the emptiness of life bore heavily upon her deep and ardent nature. Nothing in this world could satisfy one so fitted for a higher life. Taking her young son with her she went to Eastnor Castle and for many months studied her Bible alone, absorbing the light upon its pages into her soul. Here she experienced a change of heart and became one of the simplest, brightest, tenderest Christians that I have ever known. Soon after this Mrs. Hannah Whitall Smith came to an adjoining town to give a Bible reading, and Lady Henry Somerset invited her to be her guest at the castle. A deep friendship then



Lady Henry Somerset.

and there sprang up between these two servants of God. Through the influence of Mrs. Smith, who had been a leader among the White Ribboners of America, and who is known in every country through her book, "The Christian's Secret of a Happy Life," Lady Henry Somerset consented to accept the presidency of the British Woman's Temperance Association in 1890.

Being a woman of remarkable executive ability and true statesmanlike qualities, the new president resolved to know her heritage for herself and not for another. She had signed the

pledge soon after her conversion, and had asked her tenantry to do the same. She was therefore a temperance woman before taking the White Ribbon and entering upon the official work. There is hardly a city or town in England that has not heard her earnest voice pleading for total abstinence. To say that she is beloved by her constituency of temperance women would be to put the matter mildly.

By the earnest invitation of Mrs. Hannah Whitall Smith, Lady Henry Somerset came to America in October last to attend the first World's W. C. T. U. Convention, of which we hoped she would consent to become president. All who were in Boston in those memorable November days when she was the inspiration of the convention in Faneuil Hall, Tremont Temple, Music Hall, Old South Street Church, Bromfield Street Church, in the overflow meetings held in connection with those two great gatherings, will bear witness to the universal reverence

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and affection which her character and conduct inspired in the hearts of all good men and women. She has spoken for White Ribboners in all our leading cities and most generously expresses her desire to reach strategic points and help on the movement in every way she can. She gave the annual sermon at the great convention, and while the farthest in the world from having the appearance or manners that have been falsely set forth as appertaining to progressive women, she is one of the most progressive of our time.

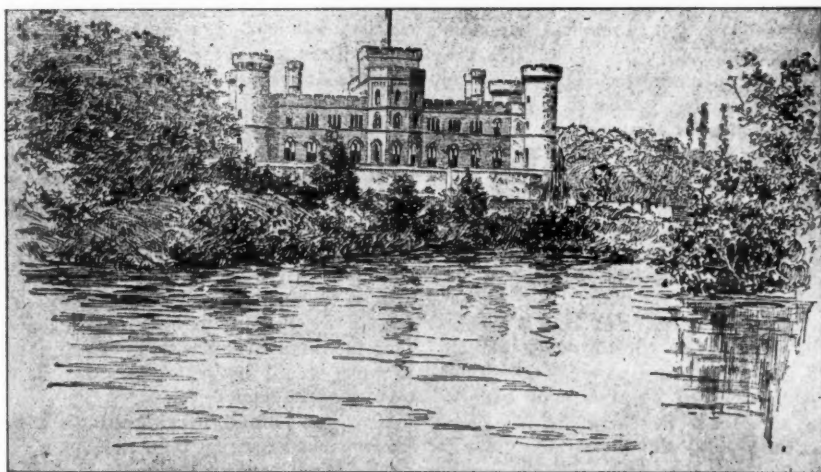
Her meetings in Chicago, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Washington have been memorable in the history of the W. C. T. U., under whose auspices she has invariably appeared. She went to Minneapolis at the close of January to help Mr. John G. Woolley in his efforts to establish Rest Island Mission near Minneapolis for the reformation of intemperate men. In her four days' work in the twin cities, Minneapolis and St. Paul, she spoke seven times, the public press and people combining in her praise.

Lady Henry Somerset is at present studying the White Ribbon movement at its headquarters in Chicago, acting as one of the editors-in-chief of the *Union Signal*, the official organ of the White Ribbon movement, and has been attending lectures at Mr. Moody's school for evangelists, because she

wishes to learn its methods since she intends to found a W. C. T. U. school of methods in London.

She will probably attend the Dominion W. C. T. U. in April, and return to England in time for the annual convention of the society of the White Ribboners there, of which she is president. Of the World's W. C. T. U. she is vice president at large, having declined to be its chief officer, although unanimously urged to take the position. She is deeply interested in the World's Columbian Exposition and will help it on all she can from the other side of the water. She will return to America next spring to be present at the convention of the World's W. C. T. U. to be held in connection with the great Exposition, after which it is expected that she will join the commission of representative temperance women who will take to all the governments of the world the great petition asking for the prohibition of intoxicants and opium in all countries. A million names have already been secured to this petition and one or two million more are being sought.

Thus much for the beginnings of history, for Lady Henry Somerset is but forty years of age, and has every prospect of as many more years to be spent in the love of God and of humanity for the greatest reform that history records.



Eastnor Castle.

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HOW TO CHOOSE LINEN.

BY HELEN BREWSTER.

THERE seems to be more of sentiment woven into the threads of the household linens than any other of the material things of which we build our homes; not to the same extent now, perhaps, as when the store of linen a young bride took to her new home was of her own spinning and weaving. In the quiet lives of maidens of other generations the filling of the chest which was to form part of the dowry, must have been one of the pleasantest tasks. As they spun the thread and watched the loom, what daydreams they must have enjoyed of the unknown home of the future, for the comfort of which they were providing. All this is changed now, but still the household linens are among the things which a girl most enjoys selecting as part of her trousseau, and a well-filled linen closet is a joy to every housekeeper, whether young or old. This is the season when the woman who looks well to the ways of her household examines the contents of its shelves and replaces the articles which the year's wear has rendered unfit for further use. Large sales of linens at reduced prices are made annually after the holidays, and genuine bargains can be found among the stock which has become slightly soiled but is unimpaired in quality. The McKinley bill, which like lightning seems to strike in unexpected places, has not touched the higher grades of these goods. The coarse crashes and kitchen towelings have advanced in price, but for three years longer we shall be able to buy our table linens at the old rates.

For table linens of medium quality for ordinary use, the products of the Scotch power looms will be found most serviceable and satisfactory. In the manufacture of this grade of goods by the hand loom it is possible to use inferior thread, which will not stand the strain of the power loom. Tablecloths in the two by two and one half yards size cost in these Scotch linens from \$3 to \$7, and are woven in a great variety of beautiful patterns. Dinner napkins cost about the same price a dozen as the cloths which they match. Table linen by the yard is a little less expensive than a cloth with the border woven all round, but is

also less effective. A good, serviceable quality can be bought for \$1 a yard.

The finer and more expensive damasks are best made in the Irish manufactories by hand looms. One of the best known of the Irish manufacturers is Michael Andrews, who supplies many of the royal households and whose name woven in the border of the linens made by his looms is a sufficient guarantee of their quality. A tablecloth of Irish linen in the two by two and one half yards size, of fine quality, can be bought for \$9. Still finer and more expensive grades are as soft to the touch as silk, and up to a certain point improve with age and use.

There is a fancy at present for tablecloths with a plain center. They are desirable if a skilled laundress is employed who will give the linen the proper gloss and finish, as the plain surface forms a most effective background for the table decorations. If badly laundered one might as well use a sheet for a table covering.

The flower and leaf designs of which there is a great variety seem most dainty and appropriate for table linen. One of the most effective is a conventionalized chrysanthemum pattern. Another combines the clover blossom and leaf. The old-fashioned snow-drop pattern, one of the first used in weaving linen, is always popular. The French linens while not so reliable as the Irish are preferred by some persons for the beauty of their designs. They are more florid than those used by other manufacturers, showing knots and garlands which remind one of the designs used in their silk damasks.

Hemstitched tablecloths are shown at present but are not a wise choice, as the fashion is only a passing one. The handwork adds largely to their cost, and rather detracts from than increases their beauty. The difference in price would be better invested in the quality of the linen selected.

If one can afford it, nothing is more beautiful for table decoration than the drawn work done on fine linen by the natives of Fayal. Doilies, table squares, and tray covers have borders of this exquisite work finished either with fringe or fine buttonholed scallops. Doilies of the smallest size cost \$8 a dozen;

larger ones, \$12. A long scarf to decorate the center of the table, which has bands of drawn work alternating with those of plain linen, is sold for \$30. When one is told that it represents the labor of five or six months, and that a heavy duty is levied on these goods, the price seems small, and the wages paid to the patient workers who made it, out of all proportion to the time and skill required.

Turning to the stock of bed linens and towels, we find a large variety of these goods, ready made in all sizes, with hems either plain or hemstitched. Hemstitching, which seems quite wasted and out of place on table linen, gives a dainty finish to bed linen. It is specially to be recommended for towels as fringed ends are hard to launder and soon look thin and ragged. When a towel of huckaback, hemstitched by hand and fine enough for ordinary use, can be bought for \$3.50 a dozen it seems a foolish waste of time to attempt to make them at home. Fine towels either fringed or hemstitched cost \$6 and \$8 a dozen. Others at \$16 a dozen are of exquisite quality and soft as a web of

silk. Foyal towels, made of the native linen with drawn work borders, cost \$2.75 each, and make pretty stand covers or splashers.

Pillowcases of the smallest size made from durable linen of a fair quality and hemstitched by hand can be bought for \$1 a pair. The seams are sewed with a glove machine to make them as much like an overhanded seam as possible. Hemstitched linen sheets of medium quality, full double bed size are \$6.50 a pair. Others of Holland linen, at the same price, are very much like the old homespun linen. The Holland manufacturers do not attempt to bleach their linens to the snowy whiteness which is now achieved in the Irish bleacheries, believing that it renders them less durable. The old bleach sheetings come between the two classes of goods just mentioned in color and finish. In price they range about the same. Hemstitched cotton sheets are \$3.00 a pair.

For drawn work the old bleach linen which comes specially for that purpose is most desirable. It is in various widths from eighteen to forty inches and in three qualities.

THE WORK OF WHITTIER.

BY EMMA JEAN HANEY.

"Hater of din and riot,
He lived in days unquiet;
And lover of all beauty,
Trod the hard ways of duty."

HOW much as a nation do we owe to the old Quaker bard who has thus spoken of himself!

Reared in a simple New England Quaker home, cultured from childhood in the pure but rigid laws of duty and truth, he was early filled with an ardor the satisfaction of which required something heroic. So when the antislavery question begins to be agitated, he, a man of so remarkable genius which was, as yet, unfettered by any rule or custom, just entering the literary field and with a reputation at stake, turns his attention with all earnestness toward the wronged and oppressed.

Hard does he labor to arouse the Northerners to the conflict which shall annihilate the element of disunion. Sitting by his own quiet hearth he writes constantly of matters which none others dare mention. He grows

tired of the delay and entreats that words be replaced by action, saying,

"If we have whispered truth,
Whisper no longer,
Speak as the trumpet does,
Stern and stronger."

Although apparently the calmest of men, his heart was ever in the thickest of the fight. It was inflamed by the wrong done to the children of his Heavenly Father, his own brothers and sisters.

His verses were the spontaneous outcry of his sympathetic soul. He loved his fellow-men; and, as their brother and champion, his poet's heart felt keenly every thrust aimed at them. He let no occasion slip by him. Ever a fluent writer, he wrote on every question, and in the stern language required at the time of so great a political crisis.

No oppressor escaped his scorn. He assailed even the clergy who were not in sympathy with the slave. However, all the bitterest sarcasm, all the stern invectives, could never call aught but respect from those against

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whom they were aimed ; for "love conquers all," and his words showed but pure, simple, disinterested love, love for God, love for man.

He never swerved from what he deemed right. When there seemed no way out of the struggle, and the North seemed about to make a truce, it was Whittier's pen that wrote,

"Truce with oppression?
Never, O never!"

He was the secretary of the first antislavery society ; and, 'tis said, he felt it a greater honor to have his name affixed to the Antislavery Declaration than to have it on the title-page of any book. There was no desire for personal aggrandizement with him.

"His life was not his own
Nor lived for self alone."

To him right was right ; no evil was excusable. His conscience was his dictator ; and his conscience was that of Quaker integrity. Why should he waver? His God is just ; and he is writing for freedom, justice, humanity, against absolute cruelty.

"Barbara Frietchie" is probably his best known poem of the war times. No American may read it unmoved. But the finest of his political poems is "The Eve of Election," in which he sets forth the responsibility of the freeman and the importance of his vote.

When the war was over, Whittier was the one to make our peace more perfect, our home return more joyful, as he sang the nation's joy, in soft sweet lyrics of peace and home.

When he heard the bells proclaim the amendment abolishing slavery, he wrote the beautiful "*Laus Deo*"; reading which one may almost hear the old bells, so intense the strain :

"It is done!
Clang of bell and roar of gun
Send the tidings up and down.
How the belfries rock and reel!
How the great guns, peal on peal,
Fling the joy from town to town!"

In fighting for truth he had shown himself strong. He had now to prove that "out of the strong cometh forth sweetness."

After the establishment of peace, and after he had immortalized most of the notable men and women of the war times, Whittier returned to his former love for nature, particularly for the beauty of New England scenery. His was "knowledge never gained of schools." What he knew of nature, he learned from the

great mother herself, and with his "Barefoot Boy,"

"Nature answers all he asks;
Hand in hand with her he walks,
Face to face with her he talks
Part and parcel of her joy."

After the death of his aged mother and of his beloved sister, he was desirous of writing something to their memory. But how could he dissociate them from his New England home? Were they not a part of it? With such thoughts did he set to work to write the national and classical pastoral, "Snow-Bound."

The scene is laid in a country house. At early morn begins a snowstorm that rages all day, until at night

"The white drift piled the window frame,
And through the glass the clothesline posts
Look in like tall and sheeted ghosts."

The shrieking wind is heard,
"And on the glass the unmeaning beat
Of ghostly finger tips of sleet."

At length the sun sinks behind the white banks ; and the family gather about the lighted wood fire. There are the father, the mother, the uncle,

"A simple, guileless, childlike man,
Content to live where life began,"

the schoolmaster, the maiden aunt, and the dear sisters. In retirement did they live until

"a week had passed
Since the great world was heard from last."

Then paths were made and

"Wide swung again our ice-locked door,
And all the world was ours once more."

Another of Whittier's masterpieces is the "Tent on the Beach." This is a summer idyl of the seashore. Its plan is that of Longfellow's "Wayside Inn" and Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales."

White tents are pitched upon the shore by three friends, "a lettered magnate," "a dreamer born,"

"And one, whose Arab face was tanned
By tropic sun and boreal frost,
So traveled there was scarce a land
Or people left him to exhaust."

Their time is spent in story-telling ; and all these stories differ in subject and meter.

Gracefully did Whittier write ballads, lyrics

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and hymns. Among the ballads, which are the most metrical of his works, are his most popular poem, "Maud Muller," and his own favorite, "My Playmate." From the latter, perhaps, may be drawn the secret of his secluded and celibate life. In his hymns he best pictures his love for the divine. They are, as it were, outpourings of his whole being, and so simply and beautifully expressed as to draw after them all hearts. True to his Quaker belief he has only love for God and faith in His eternal goodness. He cares not to fathom the unfathomable. He says,

"I know not where His islands lift
Their fronded palms in air;
I only know I cannot drift
Beyond His love and care."

To poetry as an art he gives little heed. His mind is free from rule and model; he works rather to present a thing truly, and is not in the custom of fitting occasions to his verse but his verse to the occasions. His style is thoroughly individual. The most unsophisticated heart finds in him solace and rest, for he himself is unsophisticated in life and manners. He has not the education of most of his literary contemporaries; yet when the nation celebrated the centennial of her independ-

ence it was by common choice of our American poets that Whittier was asked to write the Centennial Hymn. Here, and how fittingly, he turns the whole ode into a prayer to

"Our father's God! from out whose hand
The centuries fall like grains of sand."

To Americans he has peculiar charms, for he is thoroughly American.

Whittier's hold upon the reader rests largely upon his entire forgetfulness of self, and upon the complete consecration of his talents, his time, himself, to the cause of duty. No matter how unpopular, how difficult of accomplishment a thing may be, if duty beckons, he hesitates not. In duty he rejoices, for duty he has suffered. His pen has been ever busy with the wrongs, the sufferings, or the joys of others. If it is through experience that we gain the power of sympathy, then what must have been the experience of this venerable poet? But concerning his own life's secret he remains ever silent.

Great praise is due to this our oldest living poet who has devoted his life to our country and to humanity. His is

"A life that stands as all true lives have stood
Firm rooted in the faith that God is good."

THE LAW OF PROMISSORY NOTES AND BANK CHECKS.

BY MARY A. GREENE, LL. B.

Of the Boston Bar.

THE modern term "commercial paper" includes bills of exchange or drafts, notes, checks, bills of lading, and similar documents, and as the vast bulk of business is carried on by means of such instruments, every person is at some period of his life likely to incur liability upon them as maker or endorser.

A few of the leading principles of the law applying to these instruments are given with especial reference to notes and checks, as these are the common kinds of commercial paper.

A note or a check is of course a written contract, a written promise or order to pay money. It possesses, however, a peculiar quality of negotiability. By this we mean that the note can be passed from hand to hand, so that each holder in turn has a perfect title to it and a right to demand payment. This transfer is accomplished by en-

dorsement, if the note is made payable to a specified person, or, if it is payable to bearer, by simply handing it over, without endorsement. A note or check payable to bearer is a very insecure possession, for if lost or stolen, the finder or thief can transfer it to some other person and give him a good title to it. The thief himself could not collect it because of his crime in stealing it, but the person who received it of him, not knowing it had been stolen, could collect the amount.

The law is not strict as to the form or materials used in making a check or a note, provided certain essentials are complied with.

The usual and safe business form for a note is as follows:

\$100. BOSTON, January 15, 1892.
On demand I promise to pay to Henry Jones,
or order, one hundred dollars.
Value received. JAMES BROWN.

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Or it may read "thirty days," or any other specified time "after date," instead of "on demand."

For a check the commonest form is :

\$100. BOSTON, January 15, 1892

SUFFOLK NATIONAL BANK.

Pay to the order of Henry Jones one hundred dollars.

JAMES BROWN.

The words "value received" are not required by law and can be safely omitted. The law always presumes that value was received until evidence is given to show that in fact there was no consideration for the note.

A date is not essential except in the case of a note payable at a specified time after date. Then of course the date is necessary. For a negotiable instrument takes effect from the time it was issued, not from the time of its date. A clerk once stole a check from his employer's desk and cashed it. The court decided that although the check was complete in form it had never been lawfully issued and hence was of no value whatever.

A note dated on Sunday is good if issued on a week day, but is valueless if issued on Sunday, for as a rule Sunday contracts are utterly void. It is much wiser never to date a note on Sunday.

There are five essential elements to the legal validity of a negotiable draft, note, or check :

First—It must be payable in money ; that is, gold, silver, or greenbacks, possibly also in United States currency, not in any kind of merchandise. Thus a note "payable in 100 calves" has been decided to be invalid.

Second—It must be payable without any contingency or uncertainty. A note promising to pay "\$1,000 out of the proceeds of ore to be raised and sold from my mine," is invalid. But a particular fund may be designated, as "I promise to pay out of the estate of B., deceased."

Third—It must be payable at a certain specified time, a time certain to arrive. A note payable to A. B. "when he is twenty-one years of age" is not good, for he may not live to be twenty-one, and so the time is not certain to arrive.

But a note payable "on demand" is held to be good, for demand is in the nature of things certain to be made at some time. The owner of such a note would not possess common sense if he never demanded payment.

Fourth—It must be payable to the order of a certain party therein named, or else payable to bearer. Otherwise it is not negotiable, although as a simple written contract it is good as between the maker and the person to whom it is payable. But it is not capable of endorsement unless the words "order" or "bearer" appear.

Fifth—The amount payable must be specified and certain. A note for \$100 "with interest" is good, because the interest can be calculated and thus certainly ascertained, but a note reading, "Pay \$100 or \$200," is not good.

There is a peculiar requirement as to checks. A check is an order drawn on a bank by a person who has money on deposit in that bank. The money deposit is absolutely essential. A lady who did not understand this once borrowed her friend's check book and wrote a check to pay a bill. She was much mortified when payment of the check was refused because the bank on which it was drawn was not the bank where she had a deposit.

Since notes and checks are written contracts, it follows that only those persons who are capable of making binding contracts can become liable upon them. A minor cannot incur liability by signing such documents, either as maker or endorser, although probably his endorsement would transfer the title.

A married woman could formerly incur no liability, but now the statutes of the various states give her more or less freedom to enter into contracts, and consequently her note can be enforced against her. But in most states she cannot be bound by a note given to her husband, nor can he give a note to her. If she lends money to him and takes his note, a court of equity will oblige the husband to repay her, but a court of law will not.

An agent may sign or endorse for his principal, but must be careful that the note reads as the promise of the principal. A note reading, "I promise to pay," and signed, "A. B., agent of C. D.," is not the promise of C. D., the principal, but of A. B., the agent, and the latter becomes liable personally upon it.

The maker, that is, the signer of a note or other negotiable instrument, is bound to pay it as soon as it becomes due. Three days of grace are allowed on notes, but not on checks. At the end of the last day of grace the maker may be sued if he has not paid.

The liability of the endorsers is not so absolute. By endorsing, a person becomes liable to pay the amount if the maker does not, *provided* that due demand is made upon the maker, and that due notice of the maker's refusal to pay is sent to him, the endorser. This "notice of dishonor" is usually in writing, and there are precise rules of law as to the promptness with which it must be sent to the endorsers in order that the holder may collect from them.

Any one of contract capacity who rightfully possesses a note or check may endorse it. A note payable to bearer needs no endorsement, but a bank in cashing such will

generally request an endorsement, as a receipt for the money.

One may endorse by simply signing the name. This makes the note forever after payable to bearer. By endorsing thus, "Pay to the order of A. B.," with the signature underneath, only A. B. can collect it or endorse it. This is much safer and should always be done if possible.

Any alteration in a note or check after it is issued makes it utterly worthless, if the essential elements are thereby affected.

Checks should be presented for payment very promptly; if possible, the day after they are received.

OUR INDIAN TRIBES.

BY KATE CARNES.

THE first question that presents itself to the inquiring mind of a student of the North American Indian is the probable origin of the race.

There has been theory upon theory advanced by able writers, with which theories we are all more or less familiar; there have been men who spent their lives traveling through this Western Continent, studying and striving to solve some of these deeply interesting, though perplexing questions, and in the end could leave us nothing but more theories founded upon circumstantial evidence alone, and no facts but that of the existence and customs of this gradually decreasing people.

A lengthy treatise might be written on these doctrines of origin, but though we may not assert with some that they are Jews and the lost tribes of Israel, it is evident to any observer that they possess many characteristics and customs of the Jewish people. Some of these customs are so decidedly Jewish that one can hardly believe that two peoples who were in no way related could have possessed such customs in common.

One strong and leading fact of resemblance to the Jewish people is their religion, which among all tribes is theism. The Great Spirit is their God; between them and Him they recognize no intermediary. He cares for them and has them under His especial charge. They in their natural state believe that they are His favored people. They have

many superstitions but no idols. To some the Milky Way is the road to Heaven. But for nearly every custom among them we will find a parallel in the Mosaic laws.

Among the two hundred principal tribes of North American Indians we find as many different languages. Where the tribes are neighbors we find some languages which are merely dialects. Some are entirely different; for instance, the Sioux and Cheyenne languages. One may learn to speak and understand the former with ease, while the latter is very difficult to learn, but few white persons becoming proficient in it.

All Indian languages are made much more emphatic by motions and signs. Spreading the arms to their utmost length indicates sunrise; folding them about the body means sunset. A child will tell us a man is passing on horseback by placing the first two fingers of the right hand astride the first finger of the left hand and moving them up and down.

The present systematic plans of education for the Indian are accomplishing their aims as rapidly as existing circumstances will allow, and there is no doubt that every officer and teacher engaged in this great work is deeply interested in the solution of this national problem.

In this matter of education there are generations of inherited prejudices to contend against; later acquired vices to fight,—vices learned from unprincipled white persons who brought more evil than good to them.

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In their primitive condition Indians may be indolent, and revengeful toward enemies, but we have every evidence all through our history with them that they can be true to real friends.

Their governments are like all tribal governments, having a head chief for each tribe, and subchiefs with their bands.

They had no written laws and the penalty attached to crimes was affixed by custom or the decree of council, prior to March 3, 1885. The ninth section of the Indian appropriation act decrees that certain crimes committed, "either within or without an Indian reservation, shall be subject therefor in the same courts and in the same manner, and shall be subject to the same penalties as are all other persons charged with the commission of said crimes," etc.

There is also what is known as a "court of Indian offenses" established upon some reservations, which is an attempt to familiarize the Indians with law and legal processes and settle disputes arising among them.

For the enforcement of the laws on the reservations Indian police are employed and paid by the government. The most intelligent Indians are chosen, and though the remuneration is small, they do efficient work, as was shown by the scrupulous performance of their duty in arresting Chief Sitting Bull in the winter of 1889.

We shall find by a careful comparison of statistics that a little more than one fourth of the population derive their subsistence from labor in civilized pursuits, while the remaining portion live by fishing and hunting and by government rations.

The cost of the Indians to our government may be realized by a glance over the following table for a recent year, not counting the cost of the late war :

APPROPRIATIONS.	1889-90
Fulfilling treaties with Indian tribes, permanent.	\$1,428,654.90
Fulfilling treaties with Indian tribes, annual	1,585,796.84
Support of Indian tribes, gratuities	702,500.00
Support of Indian schools	1,379,568.13
Incidental and contingent expenses	169,000.00
Current expenses	818,331.50
	<u>\$6,083,851.37</u>

Another question comes to us. Has the Indian in the United States decreased in

numbers since the date of European settlement? At that time the Indian population was variously estimated, and as low as 1,000,000; in Jefferson's time at from 1,000,000 to 600,000; from that time on through the different years to 1890, the numbers fluctuated between 470,000 and 250,000, according to the official reports of the United States.

Julius H. Seelye, of Amherst College, wrote in 1880 :

"The present number of Indians in the United States does not exceed 300,000, but it is probably as large now as when the Europeans began the settlement of the North American continent. Different tribes then existing have dwindled, and some have become extinct, but there is reason to believe that the vast territory now occupied by the United States, if not then a howling wilderness, was largely an unpeopled solitude."

In 1832 Drake, in "The Indians of North America," gave a table of the principal tribes of Indians and estimated their number at about 313,000, and the number of tribes at about two hundred.

J. W. Powell, Chief of the Bureau of Ethnology, in the first annual report, 1880, writes :

"The Indians of the continent have not greatly diminished in numbers and the tribes longest in contact with civilization are increasing."

Exactly the opposite was the opinion of Francis A. Walker in 1874 :

"The Indian tribes of the continent—with a few exceptions—have been steadily decreasing in numbers."

One other opinion, from William Barrows, D.D., 1886 :

"According to the official reports of the last eighteen years the average decrease of the civilized or partly civilized Indians has been a little less than two thousand a year."

We have every reason to credit the correctness of the numbers given us by the Indian Office, for the present reservation system aids it in acquiring a correct census of our Indian population. The one danger is that local influences may exaggerate the numbers. Thus our only conclusion can be that the law of the survival of the fittest is again being verified and that the Indian population is slowly but surely decreasing.

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"MY MOTHER." *

BY HARRIET CARTER.

IN a little book bearing the title "My Mother," Bishop Vincent tells the strong, sweet story of the life of her who bore toward him this sacred relationship. Tenderly, lovingly, he sketches merely the outlines of her biography, but he has thrown into them with rare skill the subtle power of a suggestiveness which reveals far more than mere words can. And so, reading the printed lines and divining the unexpressed thoughts traced thickly between them, one finds in the book the clear reproduction of the treasured picture which the writer has enshrined upon "memory's wall."

It is hard to conceive of words into which can be crowded a greater wealth of meaning than those uttered in ripe manhood of a true mother's influence. The action and reaction of the feminine and masculine natures upon each other are shown in their best interplay in this relation, and result in the highest development of character. The full import of this truth is not reached until maturity, and then the words in which appreciative manhood pays reverence to conscientious motherhood are but the outward sign pointing to the great inner treasure house of the two blended lives.

History is replete with notable instances bearing testimony to the fact that of all human forces influencing human lives no other is so strong, so enduring, as that exerted by a mother. Artists have painted, poets have sung, philosophers have taught the same truth; and, of far greater importance than any of these, men and women in all the lowly, crowded walks of life have demonstrated it in their character. All unite in declaring that greater than any other tribute which mortals can have the honor of paying is the tribute to a noble mother.

Looking now at this pen-picture into which have gone so many loving thoughts, so many sacred reminiscences, so much of filial reverence, one finds a beautiful character study, attractive, impressive, inspiring.

It is the sketch of a simple life led by an earnest woman. Placed amid happy circum-

stances as the central figure of a little home group, in a gentle, unassuming manner she fulfilled her trust. Attuning her own life into harmony with its requirements, and inciting and training others to do the same with theirs, she kept the music of the home in such sweet accord as ever to make it a joy to all within its precincts. And the memory of those strains has served as a keynote for those who went out from her home to found new homes of their own. It is an intuitive, an independent nature that knows how to live simply. Existence is so full of struggle, of painful endeavor to grasp the artificial baubles of life—and the craze is so contagious—that one who withstands it all and seeks instead the true gifts, shows marked strength of character. A simple life—a strong life. The two terms are synonymous when rightly understood.

The book is the record of a busy career. And yet again it shows forth another of those paradoxes with which true life is filled; it is the history of one whose presence always brought a sweet sense of restfulness. The impression left by his mother on her biographer was that of surprise for the amount of work she accomplished, and wonder at the apparent leisure which seemingly left her free to respond to any extra call made upon her. She "abounded in good works and almsdeeds," and at the same time was ever ready with gentle courtesy to proffer hospitality. She filled a large place in social life; the calls of friendship were never neglected; and yet her home seemed to proclaim that it was her one absorbing care. She proved that the two extremes, a busy life and a restful life, were meant to be blended into one perfect whole.

The memoir also portrays the mother as filling the office of teacher, and filling it so well as to remain always for those she taught, *the* teacher. All other instructors as compared with her might be represented as assistants. Her success tells at once how great was the responsibility she felt in this regard, and how thorough was the preparation made for fulfilling it. A mother it is who teaches, whether she will or no, how all instruction is to be received, and who fixes in large de-

* My Mother: An Appreciation. By Bishop John H. Vincent. Meadville, Penn'a: Flood and Vincent. The Chautauqua-Century Press. Price, 35 cents.

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gree the standard according to which the life study of her children is done.

Not merely by giving instruction and pointing out the way did she teach, but she acted the part of guide, saying by her conduct, "Come and let us seek out the best things together. Life's meaning must have been singularly clear to her eyes, judging from the unwavering manner in which she drew directly near to its great truths. Upon life itself she must have looked as the great gift of God to man, the supreme boon granted by a loving Father. Not wholly as a gift, however, did she receive it, for she evidently believed that a return must be made for it; that it was her part to bear back from life to its Giver a well-developed, symmetrical, strong, upright character. Toward the building of this she contributed her all. And she saw in every duty, every care, every joy—in

short in every event of her existence—a blessed opportunity to be turned to this account. And so her life remains an example for others to follow.

As the fountain head, the source, to which is to be traced back the motive power of this woman's life, is found her Christian faith, the only source whence such a life can flow. Fearless, unwavering, expanding into clear experience and spiritual insight, her faith changed into sight and she lived "as seeing Him who is invisible." And thus she showed that "the best proof of the divinity of the Christian religion is the daily life of the Christian." As a natural sequence came her triumphant death which was but the entering in of a victor to the higher realms of existence. Such a record is an earnest of the glad Easter tidings and of all it means to humanity.

THE NEWSPAPER INDUSTRY IN THE GERMAN CAPITAL.

BY OSKAR KLAUKMANN.

Translated from "Ueber Land und Meer" for "The Chautauquan."

NEWSPAPER affairs in Berlin would not have risen to the importance which in the last fifteen years they have attained had not the public become more eager for the latest news.

Before Berlin became the capital of the German Empire its inhabitants cared little about the freshness of their newspaper intelligence. The news counters sometimes seen through show windows with the inscription, "Here's where you read your news," are relics of that earlier time when many people of Berlin were content to obtain news from papers which according to the ideas of to-day would be considered decidedly stale.

Newswomen are employed by the newspaper despatchers to carry the papers to the homes of subscribers. These despatchers are in a way agents for the delivery of the newspapers, and have a discount on those carried by them. It is their duty to see that within their districts the newswomen carry the late papers as soon as possible to the houses of subscribers. Women old and young, who attend to the newspaper delivery are being displaced by children, often of a tender age.

Newspapers for outside the city are sent through the post office, and German news-

papers have a great advantage over those of England, France, and Italy, with whose sending off and delivery the post office is not concerned.

The post-news-office serves as a central station for all the copies to be sent out of town by the six hundred and thirty newspapers published in Berlin. This, the only institution of its kind in the world, exhibits the mechanism of a machine, whose only constituents are men, who working hand in hand accomplish daily almost superhuman results.

Berlin papers at the most are issued twice a day, only a few being evening papers.

The evening paper which the inhabitant of Berlin receives at his home at 6 or 7 o'clock is ready for the press about 3 or half past 3. The printing begins about 4 o'clock, but sometimes the forms are held fifteen or twenty minutes for important news.

Editorial work on the morning paper is not finished till late, the editor usually working far into the night, but between 12 and 1 o'clock the forms are closed so that no more notices are received. The printing begins at 2 a. m.

Thus the post-news-office twice inside of twenty-four hours forwards a perfect stream of

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newspapers, especially political ones, which must be sent from Berlin on the outgoing trains. The first stream of morning papers begins about 4 o'clock and until 8 receives undivided attention, and the second, which is more easily disposed of, begins at about 5 p. m. lasting till 9 p. m.

The post-news-office employs 65 officers, and 130 subofficers, of whom 80, including both officers and subs, are employed with the direct despatch of newspapers to persons in Berlin, the others are retained in bureaus to attend to the papers sent from Berlin to 5,000 post offices, in and out of the kingdom.

The non-political papers, which are mostly weeklies, are sent in the same bundles with political, but the latter always must be disposed of promptly at a certain minute, while more time and ease are allowed for the former.

For the 5,000 receiving places there are 5,000 compartments in shelves. As it would be impossible from one point of view to oversee all these compartments and to control the sorting and packing of all the newspapers, the whole post-news-office is divided into subdivisions called "*Listen*," each one of which has a stipulated number of compartments. These compartments have a double labeling: one alphabetically for the non-political papers; the other for the political, according to the railway postal route, which is as follows: beside each other on the shelves are the compartments for those stations which lie on a certain railway route over which the train carries the papers. The object of this arrangement is that the political and non-political may go with one packing.

Before the general traffic of the morning papers, at about 11 p. m., the work of distribution at the post-news-office begins and goes on every day, year in, year out, except on Monday forenoons. The list officers with cutting machines cut the wrapping paper to fit the packets, and clip from great printed sheets tickets bearing the name of the place and station; these tickets they paste on the wrapping paper. They cut cord corresponding in length to the size of the bundle, and place in every compartment a paper wrapper bearing on its nether side the name of the station for which the packet is destined, and which corresponds to the name found above the compartment. All is then in shape to wrap up the papers when they shall have been distributed.

Of course the newspapers cannot issue all

their copies at once; in spite of the use of fabulously speedy rotation machines the printing of a whole issue often consumes several hours, and neither does the post-news-office need to receive the whole edition at once, since morning and evening, at short intervals from the different stations, express messengers gather the packages of newspapers stowed in bags ready for the cars.

Such a tumult reigns in the post-news-office at about 4 a. m. and 5 p. m. that one looking on for the first time would receive the impression of a disorderly, chaotic scramble, in which nobody knows what he is about. The baggagemen and the newspaper assorters drag through the main entrance and throw down upon iron-covered tables immense bundles usually of 1,000 copies stacked in gigantic columns. They then call out the number of copies which they bring, and above this noise rises the voice of the officer who sits on a pulpit-like podium in the receiving room, and reads from a book the number of single copies of each paper which shall be apportioned to each "*list*."

With incredible swiftness the receiving officers count the copies, hand them over to the bearers for the specified "*lists*," and these in turn run as quickly as their feet can carry them to the lists or throw the pack into the rolling chair, which clanks back and forth without interruption. The conductors of the list read again from a register prepared twice a day the names of the stations which receive the newspapers, together with the number of copies of each political paper which are to be sent.

All the business goes like clockwork and with such miraculous rapidity that the beholder is baffled to learn that in a half hour as many as 30,000 copies of newspapers are received, counted in the lists, and distributed in the compartments according to stations, tied in packages, packed in bags, and sent off.

During the principal business hours of the post-news-office, from 4 to 8 a. m. and from 5 to 9 p. m., almost every half-hour a "*closing of the list*" is made, viz.: packages for a certain railway route must be made ready and sent to the railway station by the carrier wagon at a certain time before the train for that route departs.

The closing of the list always presents a magnificent picture. Orders for "*closing*" and for lading are given by bell-signals. The bags are brought down by means of a

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slide to the back door, where in a few seconds a whole barricade of newspaper budgets and bags have accumulated. The folding doors are pushed open, two officers take their places at the right and left to see that the packing is properly done; five or ten carrier wagons, with their doors opened at the back, stand ready; more orders are shouted and the wagons are packed, their doors closed, and the next moment are off to the station at a great pace.

The post-news-office employs intelligent people trained especially for the work by many months' practice. The officers are strong men and work many times without interruption for twenty-four hours.

In this way the post office daily handles at least 300,000 copies of political and on many days many more of non-political papers and circulars, a gigantic task whose solution is a masterpiece in itself.

SOCIETY—BEFORE AND AFTER THE SEASON.

BY MARGARET W. NOBLE.

THE social season is over; society may now invoice its stock and profits. It began in the fall with high spirits, health, ambition, and an endless new wardrobe. It has dined, called, received, promenaded, waltzed, displayed its fabulous jewels in opera boxes, and soiled its good clothes to the trunk bottoms. *Cui bono* is answered in pale cheeks, drained nervous systems, persistent little coughs, loss of appetite and gain of temper, not to mention heart-burnings and jealousies that have increased as the splendid costumes diminished. In restless search for something the winter has not brought, society does not wait to inspect its own wrecks but packs up and frantically whirls off to St. Augustine, Old Point, or some restorative springs, where it doses, drinks, and bathes, resting with all its might to prepare for the summer campaign. Such a panorama has been going on in every city of our country that boasts of having society. A splendid stream, pouring itself into the desert; a fair flower, allowing its petals to be tinted with cheap paint; American womanhood, naturally unique, doing its best to lose that charm by cultivating a life as foreign to our institutions as it is senseless and dwarfing.

The character of public censor is not enviable. Probably Juvenal has been far more appreciated in modern times than heeded in the times of which he wrote. No one is thanked for pricking a bubble to show its vapidity.

Certain damaging facts, however, exist, which if duly reflected upon by society's gay votaries would call a halt in the mad whirl.

In the length and breadth of this land the brightest and cleverest men are conspicuous by their absence from the gay scenes in which

wives and daughters find their social life. These centers bristle with men's club houses. Parallel to the insipid society column in the newspapers do we find accounts of stag dinners given by those factors which should extend their enlightening influence through society at large. American girls of wealth see so little of America's choice men in society, they make alliances mistakenly or not, with foreigners frequenting the *salon*. Our own young men declare the only qualification to success in society is the ability to say nothing with grace and to caper with ease, accomplishments placing men of brains at such unequal showing it is no wonder drawing-rooms have no attractions for them.

Sordidness and inanity go hand in hand to give character to the majority of receptions and other social functions. Preparatory to each one the florist and caterer hold full sway, the lavishness of decoration depending upon the amount required to exceed other similar displays. Monotonously the caterer suggests a tea, ridiculously coloring it with some rainbow tint; and the hostess, ignorant of her own enslavement, acquiesces. Next in securing advertisement is the dressmaker in whose triumphs hostess and assistants stand like lay figures. Blinds drawn, lights turned on, figures take their places and the procession begins.

What mortal after attending one after another of these affairs and obligated to repay with one of her own could refrain from such mental inventory of the display as, "Beautifully blending receiving line—not the first time though, I've seen that third gown. What a mound of La France roses—\$3 a dozen—must have cost a pretty penny! Or-

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chestra—same old tunes they've played every day this season. I'll make a desperate struggle to have something new. H. must have catered. He always has water lilies growing on mirrors in the middle of the table." And having added these and sundry similar ideas to her mental store, and a conglomerate of *pâté*, salad, and ices to her gastronomic resuscitation, the guest greets her friends and departs. Nor is the matter ended until her party call is made, the hostess having the additional labor of going through a hamperful of cards to check on her list those who attended.

The distinction of the event is not entirely stamped until it appears in the papers, giving a word to the hostess and a paragraph to her gown. The hostess must make an average of two hundred calls before issuing her invitations, and endure the infliction of the same number afterwards. Treating and being treated in this way by a long list of society associates there is not a woman in Christendom able to find time for self-improvement, but becomes dependent entirely upon two means of retaining a personal drawing power,—beauty and dress. What wonder if her soul could be weighed in a thimble!

Society in nine tenths of its present functions presents a weary succession of stale entertainments in which there is no field for either wit or wisdom—a pageant of which a single season is a surfeit to a bright mind and one in which woman is seen in her most prejudicial light.

The fault is not all hers. Ages have invested her with an occupation of trifles. In a ruder age these trifles were comprised in household drudgery, but trifles nevertheless. Our men while descanting grandiloquently of the industry of the grandmothers—for American grandmothers were all workers—lose sight of the fact that their occupation to which the social follies of to-day are contrasted, consisted in storing away closets of domestic-woven linen and supplies of home-knit stockings, an employment which would brand a woman now as an imbecile. The necessity removed, its blighting power still shadows her life. Having a leisure to fill, she began to fill it by the cultivation of the amenities of life, but hampered by past restrictions, a refining mission becomes crippled from inherited littleness which only broad experience can obliterate.

The resulting evil is in New York an insane desire to be numbered in the Four Hun-

dred, more latterly the Hundred and Fifty, to which the apostle of anglo-maniacs has recently reduced those who neither toil nor spin, yet out-rival Solomon in glory, or who in other words have the least right in this land to live; in Washington it is a comical ambition to be asked "behind the line" at White House receptions, an invitation which invests the recipient with such an importance that among the whales of that social pond, the fortunate little fish bob about with charming unconsciousness of any one's dimensions but their own; equally is it seen in the pitiful attempts which some women are inspired to make in the same democratic city to play without money at the game which costs participants long purses. A senator's wife who until recently honestly endeavored to return the calls of those who left cards on her table, found herself on one occasion at a door leading over a saloon. The "lady" sought for was discreetly "not at home." Of late that obligation has been sensibly dropped, the reform not extending far enough, however, to protect women in official circles from being made public exhibitions once a week for all who may wish to inspect them and their household goods; it is seen everywhere in the senseless round of detailed duties which sap the strength not to say enslave the mind of the woman who hazards entering the social list. The sobriquet "society woman" even now negatives the attributes of mind and character which go to make the thoughtful, high-souled women so much in demand.

It is to be deplored that women of cleverness finding in the hothouse atmosphere of society no scope for useful abilities, turn their backs upon the social world, abandoning the choicest means of culture to those capable only of perverting the opportunities for mutual refinement to the sordid display of material possessions, and the petty rivalries of vulgar tastes.

The American *salon* is the key to social redemption in this country. We do not need to produce a Madame de Staël, Sévigné, or Roland. We already have the talent cribbed away in the many literary clubs over the country, which, absorbed in their own development, abandon social functions to those less capable of vigorous labors. Were women more alive to the advantages gained to a community by blending its two elements, in other words, by using the connecting wire of society to convey the electric current of worthy purposes, the result would be an illumination of culture in every society center.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

STREET MANNERS.

It is said that the natives of certain South Sea islands put their hands before their mouths when they yawn to prevent evil spirits jumping down their throats. The civilized man does the same thing, because it is not good manners to show that you are sleepy in company. Good manners are the evolution of centuries of experience in the art of living with others. Politeness is Christianity made practical—the golden rule in action. A man offers his hand to-day without thinking that it once meant to show that the open, extended hand contained no knife or other weapon and therefore the man was friendly.

Much has been written upon the evolution of manners that is both curious and interesting, but just now it is perhaps more profitable to note that we are making the history of manners to-day. The street car, the boulevard, the elevator, steamboat, and railroad are creating new standards of politeness. We are a people much out of doors, and we are learning to wear our "company manners" all the time. Of course this old notion of "company manners" is absurd. No one should have one set of manners for society and one for the home, because, even when alone, a man ought to be polite to himself.

What are "street manners"? Or, better, what shall a man or woman do when in public to express Christianity by manners? First of all—the law. The law says, "Keep to the right." This means that, if you do not keep to the right hand of the public way, you cannot recover damages by reason of collision with other passers on the road. If, when driving, your team is smashed while you are on the left or wrong side, the fault is your own and you have no complaint against the other team that ran into you. On the other hand he has good cause for complaint against you. In walking, safety demands the observance of this rule—therefore good manners compel you to keep to the right. Unfortunately, this rule is not carefully observed and walking, particularly on Broadway, is not always a delight.

There was once an old lady who always

went to church late, because it was only when she came down the aisle that any one ever looked at her. She held the key of bad manners, because she was vain and wished to be seen of men even at the expense of their annoyance. This is just the point of street manners. Never dress or act or do anything to attract attention. Never talk or laugh loudly, never smoke, chew, or spit in public. Never, never eat, starve first, but never eat in the street.

Why not do these things?

Because we are mammalia. The one aim of manners is to suppress and mask the fact that we are animals. Only in the soul is a man a gentleman and he uses his body, in which his soul is locked up, to show his spirit. He seeks to hide his mere physical body. The whole object of politeness is to make people forget that we, and they too, are related to the beasts of the fields. We eat with others at a table, because all are doing the same thing at the same time and thus we hide or forget that it is only eating. To eat when others are not eating is therefore unpardonable. People who sit by the windows of a restaurant where people on the street can see them eat forget that they are being used as advertisements of the food. If they knew what the people on the sidewalk think they would pull down the curtains.

To smoke on the street or chew or spit is, like eating, a sign of a barbarous, selfish soul. Smoking in the presence of others is an unspoken insult, because it says in action, "My mere animal pleasure is more to me than your comfort." We are all trying to forget our animal nature. The smoker insults by reminding us of it. If, in this catarrhal climate, you must spit, for heaven's sake, turn aside to the gutter or a dark corner or use a handkerchief. Burn it, too, when you get home, for death sometimes lurks in it. The dust of *sputa* on the street is often an invitation to disease.

In the horse car it is proper when sitting down to look once at all the other passengers to see if a friend be present. Anything beyond this one quick glance is rude. If the friend is there, you may talk, but in the "car whisper." Who are you that your petty af-

fairs should be told to unwilling ears? As to the matter of giving up your seat—well—yes, to the aged of either sex—to all women with children. Not to others, if in a moment you or others are to get out. Anybody will prefer to wait a block or two than to take any one's seat when in a moment or two there may be several empty seats. In the steam car never take four seats when you need only one. It simply says to others that you are selfish and not a gentleman. If you are ill or tired and must put up your weary legs, buy and pay for the seat your poor feet occupy.

In the apartment-house elevator take off your hat—in the office building it is not necessary even if the pretty typewriter girl is present. Always get in a corner to make room for others, and don't inform the entire company that you want the sixteenth floor. It doesn't interest them and the elevator boy is not commonly deaf. Everywhere we meet doorkeepers, elevator boys, messengers, porters, and waiters. Behind every screen in every office may be a typewriter. Who art thou that thou forget to be a lady or gentleman—that thou cease to be a Christian?

A quiet dress, a sweet and gracious manner, an unobtrusive kindliness, a soft voice, a ready hand for the trifles of attention and kindness, these are the things that win respect and regard. It is really an enlightened selfishness that makes us unselfish. Good manners win others to our side. Life is a fierce enough strife at best. No man knows to whom he may be indebted in after years. Good manners to-day may mean happy years in the far future, because there is no abiding happiness anywhere, except in the unselfish doing of something pleasant for others. Good manners spelled aright spells happiness.

CHARLES HADDON SPURGEON.

It is a stormy day in January, 1850. A blinding snow which the wind drives through the streets of Colchester village, Essex, becomes too strong for a boy who is battling against it and he turns aside into a Methodist chapel. There is no minister, but a thin and insignificant looking layman stands before the people reading the Scriptures, "Look unto me and be ye saved, all the ends of the earth." Then fastening his eyes upon the young man he exclaims, "Young man, you

are in trouble. Look to Christ! Look! look and be saved!" The result of the odd incident was the conversion of the great Spurgeon, whose thousands of sermons could all be ranged under that one text.

It is less than a year later that this boy is in Taversham village. In a strait he is called upon to preach. It is his first attempt. He electrifies his audience. During the sermon an old lady calls out, "Bless your dear heart, how old are you?" He is only sixteen, but with this event his career as a preacher begins.

The career of Charles Haddon Spurgeon, mighty as its results, is no marvel when his ancestry and training are considered. A Quaker Spurgeon of his blood languished in jail fifteen weeks without fire in the severest weather, for refusing to subscribe to the papist views of Charles II. Three generations of fathers preceding Charles II. were Independent ministers. Of his father it is related he was concerned lest through his evangelistic work he was detained too much from home for the welfare of his family. Returning home, he found the mother praying with her boys. From that time he had no fears.

Born from generations high-souled and indomitable, and bred in uprightness, young Spurgeon still lacked an education. Being a nonconformist he was forbidden the privileges of Cambridge, Oxford, or Dublin, but eager for an education had arranged a conference with Dr. Angus of Cambridge to improvise a bridge over this disability; the conference through a servant's blunder was not held, a fact he afterwards professed gratitude for as it left him more entirely one of the people.

With but a rudimentary equipment, at sixteen he begins to preach. A deacon in his church when asked how he preached at that age replied, "Why, like a man a hundred years old in experience." At nineteen he is called to Park Street Chapel, London; at twenty-one his audience numbers thousands and his fame is well-nigh world-wide; it now encompasses the globe, reaching remoter regions than have responded to any other man's name.

The study of Spurgeon's life shows what tremendous labors may be crowded into fifty-seven years. A pastorate averaging seven thousand weekly auditors alone is not attained by any other living clergyman, and is a fact whose secret would seem to absorb the

genius of even a Spurgeon. The great quality was not learning; nor polished rhetoric; nor soul-easing laxity; nor splendor of service; nor the attractions of a persuasive orator; nor any basis of social prestige. It resulted from one and only one fact, an intensity of earnestness, the inheritance of the accumulated convictions of generations of conscientious and fearless forefathers.

Spurgeon believed; believed so entirely, his very being breathed it every hour of his life, never for a minute losing sight of the conviction that he was on earth to save souls of men. Being offered \$50,000 to deliver fifty lectures in America, he replied, "I would prefer to save fifty souls at home." He never preached a sermon without bending every point in it to the conversion of his auditors. His earnestness scrupled at no mannerism calculated to make his meaning more vivid. He once turned in his pulpit and exclaimed, "That man in the gallery with a pint of gin may be saved as well as I or any one!"

The week filled with pastoral and philanthropic labors, his sermons were not begun until Saturday night. Entering the pulpit his notes would be seen on the back of an envelope. His sermons were written only by reporters, yet every out-going steamer and train carried them to the four corners of the globe. One of them well fingered was found in David Livingstone's knapsack in the heart of Africa, and mounds of mail received by Mr. Spurgeon from crowned heads to isolated frontiersmen told of conversions resulting from their reading.

In wielding colossal congregations Mr. Spurgeon's voice was a providential gift. Clear, sonorous, and deep, it has been compared to Inchcape bell, whose tones rise with the roar of the waters and are ever heard above their play. Spurgeon's whisper has been distinctly heard by six thousand people and twenty-four thousand were swayed by his words at Crystal Palace.

While leading an immense following through the Wilderness of East End, Spurgeon sowed with his left hand a harvest of good works which place him, independent of his ministry, the peer of any material helper of mankind, both in kind and extent. The Stockwell Orphanage begun as an orphan's cottage, increased to a vast institution maintained wisely on the cottage plan, the children being spared wearing uniform, which is

no less than a badge of misfortune. The Pastors' College opening with one student soon reached hundreds. Stamped with Spurgeon's standard of evangelism, many of its graduates occupy eminent pulpits. The almshouses for elderly women and other helpless ones, started by Spurgeon's private contributions, are permanent institutions. These and many other organizations like the Colportage Society are the fruit of Spurgeon's prolific activities. The establishment of one of them would leave a man no mean record. It may be said Spurgeon was able to give, and so he was; still he gave away more than his salary and stated once that he was as rich at Waterbeach, his first pulpit, as at London; he gave away all his surplus in both places.

Preaching twice every Sunday, teaching in the Pastors' College, editing the *Sword and Trowel*, established in '65, visiting orphanage and almshouse, devising plans for their enlargement and benefit, listening helpfully to thousands of tales of private suffering, answering incessant calls to address non-conformist assemblies of every denomination, and withal a long-time sufferer from rheumatic gout, it is no wonder that his candle burned out long before the allotted time. In deeds he was patriarchal, if in years youthful.

Proportionate to these labors is his authorship. Thirty-six volumes of sermons, about forty-six books, twenty-six volumes of the *Sword and Trowel*, making in all over one hundred volumes, place him easily at the head of this century's writers in fertility. In many of these there are passages whose humor is irresistible, such as "A man who marries a woman because of her beauty is as silly as the man who ate a bird because it sang so sweetly."

Probably no man of modern times has received the showers of ridicule poured steadily upon Spurgeon. Comic papers at the dulllest season could be sure of a ready reception of any caricature of the "Hell-Fire Preacher." These shafts weighed upon the Atlantean shoulders of their victim like so many straws.

Undoubtedly in the category of requirements which make greatness to-day, Spurgeon lacked many; the few he had were so intensified, his character rises above criticism and becomes more lovable for its faults. His name has become a banner. He is the Napoleon of the pulpit.

When will another like him appear?

PROVINCIAL LITERARY CENTERS.

WE are more or less in the habit of accepting as true the impression that literature is a product of great cities. It has been said that in literature Paris is France, London is Great Britain, and we once thought of American letters as bubbling out of a Boston bung. A little careful examination, however, dissipates a large part of any general impression of the sort.

It is true of the past that the publishing business thrived best in metropolitan places and this fact has made great cities very attractive to literary folk. The metropolis when it monopolizes printing becomes a congregating center for the makers of literature, rather than a center for producing them. Small towns that still preserve the bucolic flavor and whose streets are full of fresh air from the fields are nevertheless the cradles of literary art, and it is to them we must go if we would study the influences which shape the character and give the initial impulse of artistic ambition. A provincial by birth, a metropolitan by adoption, is the biography of much genius.

The enchantment of distance is nowhere greater than in the view taken of art and the art life by the isolated and unsophisticated youth in whose imagination the dream of Parnassus is beginning to arise. The great far-off city is to him the New Jerusalem of romance. There, he fancies, dwell the muses and the gods.

Provincial life on account of its limitations and restrictions confines the activities of individuals and compresses, as it were, the experiences out of which the rare wine of originality drips drop by drop. We could name a half dozen poets now just beginning to make themselves heard in America who are isolated and insulated geniuses scattered at wide intervals over the country far away from all of our great cities. In the South and West voices strong and clear arise with just that peculiarity of *timbre* which leaves no doubt of their originality and their independent vigor. We could name a half dozen writers of fiction among the best in the country who first made themselves felt from provincial centers. Even in criticism there are those who have taken high rank without ever seeing New York, Boston, or Philadelphia. We could point out one at least whose influence as a critic is, perhaps, scarcely second to

any other in America and who has always lived at least a thousand miles from New England. One novelist, the writer of a romance whose popularity is about equal to that of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," is equally a provincial with the critic alluded to.

Like nerve centers, the scattered points where our literary activities originate seem to be independent of each other to a degree. We might call them the ganglions of the nation's genius. Doubtless they are fertilized in some way from a common source of energy which belongs to us as a people; for, say what we may, American literature has a distinct flavor racy of our soil. If it is as yet scarcely national it is at least differential from the literature of the Old World by a well-defined bouquet and by a smack and a zest all its own.

A moment's thought will show the well-read inquirer that the distinctive Americanism of our literary art is due almost wholly to our provincial writers. We do not mean to say that the greatest examples of literary production are provincial; but we do say that the best defined American savor has to be looked for in the works of those who may be properly called provincial writers.

What has been well characterized as the urban influence is recognizable in the writings of the city-trained author who lives under the eaves of great libraries and is in constant touch with the literary crowd. To him striking originality is out of the question as a rule, as is also notable national bias of imagination. Your metropolitan is always more or less cosmopolitan.

The provincial lives close to nature, and if he has genius he absorbs from the unshorn, ungrafted forms of life the true secrets of passion, ambition, and sympathy. He is in the circuit and holds the live wire of universal aspiration.

We think too much of mere workmanship, perhaps, to give the untaught bucolic genius its full dues. What we call art is of small value when it is but a cunning bauble of mechanism without the soul which appeals to soul. The quasi maxim which declares that art can make anything and everything divine is a dictum of decadence. Freshness and originality, even though the chords be somewhat crudely sounded, are what furnish the true vigor of literature. Admirable as mere cleverness is, it cannot generate the enthusiasm which goes on scarcely diminished

at all for ages. The Burnses, the Jasmims, and we might call the roll of living Americans, are not examples of cleverness, or if they become clever they drop to the commonplace.

If some one with a turn for the task should make a list of the Americans distinguished in literature who fledged the wings of art in lonely places far away from the literary crowd it would look as if American literature were indeed nothing if not of provincial origin.

We may be slow to perceive it and may hesitate to acknowledge it, but the taproot

of art always seeks the bed clay of nature and draws thence the elements of eternal vigor. What goes over the heads of the sturdy, intelligent masses is not the best art, though its refined mechanism or organism be ever so beautiful. Universality of appeal, that which touches high and low alike, is the supreme evidence of absolute art. The provincial with his ear close to the ground hears every throb of nature's heart. He may be a philistine in one sense and a bungler as an artisan; but he is an interpreter, a revealer, a betrayer of divine secrets.

EDITOR'S NOTE-BOOK.

THERE were twenty separate organizations represented in the recent National Industrial Conference at St. Louis, of which more than three hundred were farmers and eighty-two were delegates from the Knights of Labor. The platform adopted is based on the principle that "wealth belongs to him who creates it," and its provisions are confined to land, transportation, and finance. The single tax theory, prohibition, and universal suffrage did not receive a place in the pronunciamiento. A significant feature of the convention was the quiet withdrawal of Miss Frances E. Willard and Lady Somerset, which followed the unfavorable decision of the conference relating to the adoption of a prohibition plank. The Nationalists secured a declaration in support of the control by the federal government of the railroads, telegraph, and telephone. A committee of the conference in connection with a committee from the People's party selected the date for the nomination of a national presidential candidate.

THE acquisition by the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad of the Lehigh Valley and New Jersey Central roads was one of the amazing financial operations of the times. The combination of interests of like character and proportion has never been witnessed in the United States or perhaps in Europe. Being the most powerful corporation in the United States and employing more labor than any one concern in the country, or it may be in the world, the Reading Railroad will in addition control more than seventy-five per cent of the anthracite coal trade and all the industries which are dependent upon it. It

is given out that the prices of coal will not be affected by the new arrangement. As a result of the concentration of capital and working force it is expected that the aggregate net profits will be increased \$6,000,000, although no advance will be made in the rates for carriage or service.

THE French Academy pays tribute to the United States Geological Survey in awarding to it the Cuvier prize of 1,500 francs for the ablest scientific research rendered to the world during the past year. Major Powell thinks the award should be made to an individual rather than to a government and he has so written, returning the gift and asking the Academy to send in its place a gold medal. The reply of Mr. Daubre for the Academy is appreciative of the work done by the Geological Survey and he refers to the scientific discoveries of the United States as being the greatest the world has seen during the past quarter century. The efforts of Major Powell, director of the Geological Survey, whose articles in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* have received such wide attention, have contributed in a large measure to the scientific undertakings of the United States, and in recognizing the worth of this department the French Academy gives deserved praise to its management.

THE visit to England of Secretary Foster of the Treasury Department of the United States is construed to mean that he seeks a conference between representatives of England, France, Germany, and the United States for a discussion of the silver question. The prevailing opinion would seem to favor international action on the subject and it will

be no surprise if the financial ministers of Europe favor the plan for a conference. It is the second time in the history of the country that a cabinet officer has gone abroad, the first instance being that of Secretary Jewell, who went to Europe during the Grant administration.

THE suggestion by a newspaper correspondent of the project half completed twenty-five years ago, of purchasing St. Thomas as a coaling and naval station is pertinent at this time viewing two or perhaps three facts: the failure to secure Mole St. Nicholas, the recent improvements in the navy, and the future need of a key to the Nicaragua Canal. St. Thomas has a faultless harbor, is convenient both to trade routes south and to gulf ports, and can easily be purchased from Denmark, to which it is of little value, its inhabitants being eager to be annexed to the United States. Absorption in internal improvements has prevented this country from placing a firm foot on any ocean stepping-stones which have been claimed by European powers. Needs of the navy and the growth of a foreign policy are fast proving the necessity of a different course.

NEVER was wilder extravagance dreamed of than the "economy" of the proposed Indian Bill, which reduces mercilessly the appropriations for Indian schools. As some one said, they dared not reduce appropriations for rations; that meant war. What is in the end worse, is the denial of an education to one third the thirty thousand Indian children in the country, thus providing for the future a large class of vicious, roving barbarians, a single conflict with whom will cost more than the appropriation needed to convert them to citizens. The Sioux outbreak of a year ago cost over two hundred lives and more than a million dollars. That amount of money expended upon the Indian children of to-day is proved to be the best safeguard against such recurrences. The report of Hampton school issued in February states that of its three hundred and thirty-six Indian students returned to the west 85 per cent are doing from fairly to exceedingly well. To cut down appropriations for this admirable work is penny wise and pound foolish.

AMONG those interested in books and book-making, the past year will be especially remembered as that in which the adoption of

an international copyright law was secured. Thus far the effect of the law in England and the United States has been but slight, the number of new books published in 1891 being but very little more than in 1890. During 1891, according to the *Publishers' Weekly*, there were 4,665 books published, including new editions, translations, and new books. During 1890 the number reached 4,559. Fiction led all other classes by more than double the number, the preference for short stories being fairly well established. Novels were translated from the French, German, Italian, Spanish, Russian, Polish, the Bohemian and Roumanian, the Dutch, Portuguese, Norwegian, Hungarian, and Swedish. While the population of the United States has within ten years been increasing at the rate of twenty per cent, the output of new books has increased one hundred per cent.

AT the recent convention at Brooklyn of the Superintendent's Branch of the National Educational Association, country schools were weighed and found fearfully wanting. One cause, alleged by a Kansan, is the blighting hand of politics; an Illinoisan, showing that state to have but two hundred teachers to five hundred and fifty square miles, found it in lack of inspection; every one agreed that country schools have not funds needful; and many declared that farmers have not yet learned that good schools are preferable to dry barns. Then a tide turned upon the country teacher. Do we realize her environs? A long cold tramp over country roads, teaching from eight till four 'clock, light and heat the faultiest, school ungraded and ungradable, making almost as many classes as pupils—all to earn from \$17 to \$25 a month. Spare her!

THE circular announcing the fourth annual session of the Chautauqua Assembly to be held March 7—April 5 at Albany, Ga., is a most inviting one. The various schools are thoroughly organized; Drs. Duncan and Dunning being the superintendents of instruction, Prof. Case the musical director, Dr. Anderson and Prof. Wells respectively at the head of the physical culture and commercial classes, and Supt. Bradwell and Prof. Parker conductors of the teachers' institute. The general program contains a long list of most popular speakers. Nothing has been left undone which can secure a realization of this promising session. The other officers of

the Assembly are Richard Hobbs, President, J. S. Davis, Superintendent, and A. W. Muse, Secretary.

LEGISLATION upon the extension and improvement of Yellowstone Park is gradually slipping from under the tooth and claw of the lobby by which it has been pinned down for several years. In accordance with an act of the last Congress, the president has set apart a tract of land, south and east of the Park, unrivaled in scenery and fine forests. While empowered to forbid settlement and timber-cutting, the president is unable to provide for the preservation of the tract or to include it in the Park boundaries. Senator Vest has introduced a bill for this purpose, similar to the bills which, having passed the Senate repeatedly, have been killed in the House by riders put upon them by a railroad corporation, which under the pretext of reaching a mining camp has been eyeing greedily exclusive privileges of the Park. The railway company this time has abandoned fighting the bill, introducing a separate one granting itself exclusive right of way through the Park. A compromise proposes to grant an unattractive corner to the company by which its camp may be reached without giving it a mischievous privilege. This will test the integrity of its demand.

ADMITTING the golden hued report of the Immigration Commission sent abroad by Secretary Foster to be in the main correct—that contract labor importation is virtually killed, that agencies no longer drum up steerage to be dumped portionless upon our shores, and that societies for the deportation of convicts and incapables are at present inactive, nevertheless, a formidable cause for alarm still exists. Immigrants to this country last year numbered almost six hundred thousand, an increase of twenty per cent over the largest previous year's record. The heaviest numbers came from Russia, Poland, and Germany. What can they know in five years of free institutions? Yet in that time, legally—much less time, actually—they will participate in a government whose security has cost rivers of blood and millions of gold. What so cheap as an American citizen! The only recommendation made by the Commission regarding this Greek Horse is that steamships be bonded to return those immigrants found inside of two years after arrival to be prohibited by our statutes.

If there be anything in the claim that our national stability is founded upon the purity of American homes, there is reasonableness in the proposition to amend the Constitution, to allow Congress to pass uniform laws regarding marriage and divorce. The intimate relations of neighboring states whose codes are entirely dissimilar, render void if not bring into contempt the requirements of the stringent one, jostling against the laxity of its neighbor. A man who is a lawful husband in one state is a bigamist in another; certain states forbid the marriage of cousins, while their neighbors have no such scruples. Licenses demanded in one state merely serve to start a matrimonial procession to the nearest Gretna Green where no such requirements are made. Differences in divorce requirements keep a colony of unhappily mated ones *en route* to a western state where marriages are unmade for the asking. The influence of such a condition is demoralizing. A constitutional amendment may be a slow remedy, but it is far more promising than to try to induce the legislatures of all the states to pass the same law upon this subject.

UTAH now marches upon Washington demanding either statehood or home rule. With a population of a quarter million, a wealth of two hundred million, a mineral output for '91 more than one ninth the whole product west of the Missouri, and an illiteracy of only 3 per cent she presents a strong case. She alleges great injustice, claiming that while polygamy has been as dead as Brigham Young since '87, she is still kept as a culprit ward, whereas rebel states were received back into the Union in a much shorter time after slavery was killed. Utah at present has no elective power. Her government is forced upon her by appointment from abroad. Her governor has an absolute veto which has been proved to have been corruptly used. Her courts are held in only three counties, forcing some populous counties to come three or four hundred miles to attend court. Other wrongs are cited demanding relief.

How marvelous, to reflect that the force which recently afforded the people of this planet two displays in the vaulted blue, equally rare and beautiful, is the same that has unharnessed the lowly mule and has set to naught the speed of steam. The secret formula of the heavens has been read by earth-born eyes; conjunctions of planets are looked

for, and aurora borealis causes the astronomer to search expectantly for sun spots. The carrier upon which the celestial Queen of Love rode, apparently to meet the Father of the Gods, then to part in stately array, and which swung a mighty rose petal over half the sky, is none other than the homely servant who transmits our "Hello, central."

Two bills recently presented in Parliament accomplish a step toward breaking up the huge holdings which now gorge the pockets of England's aristocracy. One, the Small Holdings Bill for English farmers, provides for the purchase by county councils of land to be sold on reasonable terms in small parcels to yeomen required to live upon it. Both parties favor its passage. The other, the Irish Local Government Bill, gives Irish rate payers full management of their own affairs with the franchise the same as in England. The bill places so many restrictions upon the Baronial Councils provided for, it has brought down a storm of wrath upon its author, Mr. Balfour. While apparently redeeming its pledge, the government will by no means appeal to the country for the sake of the measure.

A NEW French Cabinet allays the fears roused by the resignation of that of De Freycinet which won the distinction of surviving two years, about double the usual period of French cabinet life. Notwithstanding its reputation for ability it lost the confidence of the Chamber because of its attitude on religious confraternities. The new Premier, M. Loubet, of unblemished record, replaces as Minister of the Interior M. Constans, who made the savage attack upon Deputy Laur because of charges which were never disproved. M. Yves Guyot of Public Works was notably unskilled in engineering; his successor, M. Viette, has an excellent reputation as Deputy. M. Barbey shone as shirt-maker far more than as Minister of Marine; he is replaced by M. Cavaignac, son of the general who quelled the revolution of '48. De Freycinet still retains the war portfolio, all other members of his cabinet being reinstated.

THE sympathies of the civilized world have been only recently called out in behalf of the five million Jewish subjects of Russia ruthlessly expelled by the czar. It is a question whether the larger share of sympathy be not due those millions of unfortunate peasants left behind, over whom there is now impending

the shadow of probable return to serfdom. The czar's intention is to have one third the crops stored in communal barns for peasant's consumption, one third devoted to paying local debts to the state, the remaining third to be applied to government taxes. This by forbidding removals, and restoring the "Barines," or serf-owners, initiates a new period of horrors for a people already pitifully crushed. The measure may solve unexpectedly the problem of Russian progress by abolishing through some nihilistic tragedy the absolutism which is at the bottom of Russia's misgovernment. Millions of subjects who have been even foot free for thirty years will not easily consent to reshackling.

WHAT a sight for the Kaiser! Two thousand deep-throated Germans marching and singing the *Marseillaise*! Following this thousands of unemployed laborers surge through the capital, looting shops and demanding bread. Berlin is an uproar of mobs. Forthwith appears the emperor, suave not to say nonchalant, evidently taking the people for babies to be quelled by his stateliness. How much more would it take to call forth a Marat, Robespierre, or a Danton? *À bas la Bastille* may be transplanted to Germany as well as the *Marseillaise*. Absolutism cannot be planted where socialism has already taken root. The Kaiser is nervous over the failure of his state socialist policy, and opposition to the Secular Education Bill, but is it wise in him petulantly to order all opposed to him to "shake the dust of Germany from their feet and emigrate"? He is young and may yet learn that government is for the people.

THAT Sir Morell Mackenzie should fall, slain by the enemy he has spent his life combatting, is fate's grim irony. The author of two large volumes on "Diseases of the Throat and Nose" and a voluminous writer on laryngological subjects, preferred to any German expert to treat the late Frederick III., whose life he prolonged months, he dies from bronchitis. Overwork, tremendous nerve drain, makes him an easy prey in the zenith of his prime. Singers, actors, and artists whom he served for almost nothing, thronged his home. There could be heard voluntary songs and recitals which London's fashionable hostesses would have paid large fees to secure. As genial friend his loss will be no less than as leading expert in his speciality.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR APRIL.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First week (ending April 8).

"Initial Studies in American Letters." Chapter V.

"Two Old Faiths." Pages 7-57.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Siege of Yorktown."

"Physical Culture."

Sunday Reading for April 3.

Second week (ending April 15).

"Initial Studies in American Letters." Chapter VI. to middle of page 161.

"Two Old Faiths." Pages 58-80.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The French and Indian War."

Sunday Reading for April 10.

Third week (ending April 22).

"Initial Studies in American Letters." Chapter VI. finished.

"Two Old Faiths." Pages 83-124.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Our Educational System."

"Development of our Industries through Patents."

Sunday Reading for April 17.

Fourth week (ending April 30).

"Initial Studies in American Letters." Chapter VII.

"Two Old Faiths." Pages 125-152.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Negro in America."

"The Abolition of Slavery in the United States."

"The Natural History of Plants."

Sunday Reading for April 24.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Table Talk—News of the day.
2. Paper—The India of the present time.
3. Book Review—Edwin Arnold's "Light of Asia."
4. Character Study—Dr. O. W. Holmes; his life and writings.
5. Debate—Question: Would it be for the best interests of the nation to have free coinage of silver?

WHITTIER DAY—APRIL 15.

I pray thee, then,

Write me as one that loves his fellow-men.

—Leigh Hunt.

1. Table Talk—Whittier's life.
2. Paper—Whittier as editor and as prose writer.
3. Reading—"Charms and Fairy Faith,"*
4. A series of studies on Whittier's poems:
 1. Indian legends—"Mogg Megone," "The Bridal of Pennacook," "Mary Garvin," "The Truce of Piscataqua," etc.
 2. Quaker legends—"The Exiles," "The Quaker Alumni," "Cassandra Southwick."
 3. Rural poems—"Snow-Bound," "Telling the Bees," "The Witch's Daughter."
 4. Superstition—"The Garrison of Cape Ann," "Kathleen," "The Double-Headed Snake of Newbury."
 5. Slavery—"The Panorama," "Toussaint L'Ouverture," "The Slave Ships."
 6. Religion—"The Brewing of Soma," "The Pennsylvania Pilgrim," "The Chapel of the Hermits," "My Soul and I."

THIRD WEEK.

1. Reading—"The Hegira."*
2. Sketch—Alice and Phoebe Cary.
3. Debate—Question: Is the higher education of practical advantage in the business world?
4. An evening of horrors with Poe—Let different ones be appointed to retell, or to read selections from, some of his most frightful tales. If it is desired to test the circle's bravery to the uttermost, resort may be had to scenic effects; the lights may be dimmed, etc. The following tales will be found most effective:—"The Black Cat," "Murders of Rue Morgue," "Cask of Amantillado," "Red Death."

If instead of the horrible, it is preferred to make a study of Poe's philosophical imagination, the following will be found among the best of his stories:—"The Gold Bug," "The Descent into the Maelstrom," "The Purloined Letter," "Von Kempelen's Discovery."

* See *The Library Table*, page 313.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. *Questions and Answers* on "Initial Studies in American Letters."
2. Character Study—Mohammed.
3. Reading—"April Awakening."*

*See *The Library Table*, page 113.

4. Biographical sketches of antislavery men—
 1. William Lloyd Garrison.
 2. Elijah P. Lovejoy.
 3. Wendell Phillips.
5. Debate—Realism against idealism in fiction.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR APRIL.

"INITIAL STUDIES IN AMERICAN LETTERS."

P. 121. "*Al'ma māt'er.*" A Latin expression meaning fostering mother; applied by students to the college at which they obtained their education.

P. 122. "*Clientèle.*" The French word for what in English is expressed by clientelage—the body of clients.

"*Er-u-dī'tion.*" Literally, freed from rudeness. The English word rude is taken from the Latin *rudis*, rough, uncultivated; the prefix *e* means from, and by a combination of the two, the word erudition is formed. It is applied to the condition of being freed from uncultivation in the line of learning. Directly defined it is the state of being learned.

P. 124. "*Outre Mer*" [outr mair]. Beyond the sea. A French expression.

P. 126. "*Kyrie, eleyson*" [kīr'i-e e-lā'i-son]. A Greek petition used yet as a response in the liturgies of Oriental churches. Its literal translation is, O Lord, have mercy. (See in Matt. xx, 30, the translation of almost the identical expression.) In the Latin litanies the petition, "Christ, have mercy," was added, and each petition repeated three times.

P. 127. "*Es-o-ter'ic.*" Designed for the initiated; not to be understood by the outside world; said of the private instruction of philosophers. It is derived from the Greek word for within.

"*Hor'ta-to-ry.*" Giving exhortation.

P. 129. "*Hæc fabula docet.*" The moral affixed to fables usually begins with these Latin words for, this fable teaches.

P. 129. "*Schopenhauer*" [shō'pen-how-er]. A German philosopher who lived from 1788 to 1860.

P. 130. "*Dac-tyl'ic hex-am'e-ter.*" Verse consisting of six feet, or meters. The first four feet are either dac'tyls or spon'dees, the fifth is a dactyl, and the last a spondee. A dactyl is a foot composed of a long syllable followed by two short ones; a spondee is composed of two long syllables. The accent must fall on the first syl-

lable of each foot. The following lines from "*Evangeline*" are marked to indicate the meter:

This' is the | for'-est pri- | mé-val; but | where' are the |
 hearts' that be- | neath' it.
 Tip'ping its | sum'-mit with | sil'-ver a- | rose' the | moon'
 on the | riv'-er.
 And the | soul' of the | maid'-en be- | tween' the | stars'
 and the | twi'-light.
 Ah! how | oft'-en thy | feet' have | trod' this | path' to
 the | mead'ow.

"Trochaic" [tro-kā'ic]. Consisting of trochees [trō'kēz], feet of two syllables, the first long, the second short.

"An-thro-po-mor'phic." From the two Greek words for man and form. "Relating to or characterized by anthropomorphism," which is, as here used, "the conception of animals, plants, or nature in general, by analogy with man." In another sense it means "the ascription of human attributes to supernatural or divine beings. In theology it is the conception of God with human qualities."

P. 131. "*Pin'dar.*" (About 520-440 B. C.) A Greek lyric poet.

P. 132. "*Slō'gan.*" The war-cry of a Highland clan in Scotland.

P. 133. "*Sodales.*" The Latin word for comrades.

"Post-prandial." After dinner.

P. 134. "*Nux Postcænatica*" [post sen-at'i-ca]. Freely translated from the Latin it means an after-dinner nut to crack.

P. 135. "*The poet who wrote the Sphinx*" was Emerson.

P. 138. "*Intaglios*" [in-tal'yōs]. Stones or gems in which figures are cut so as to form a depression; the opposite of cameos.

P. 142. "*Ihr nahl,*" etc. "Again ye hover near, ye shadowy forms."

P. 143. "*Ex-or'di-um.*" *Ex*, from, *ordiri*, to begin. Latin. The beginning of anything, particularly of a literary production, or of a discourse.

P. 144. "*Utopia.*" The word, derived from two Greek words, means nowhere. It was

given by Sir Thomas More as the name of an imaginary island, where everything exists in a state of perfection—laws, morals, politics, etc. The evils of existing laws are shown by contrast in this romance.

P. 145. "Noctograph." A writing instrument for the use of the blind.

"A-man-u-en'ses." Persons who write what others dictate, or who copy what is already written.

P. 150. "Bohemians." A name applied to artists or literary men who lead a free and independent life, regardless of all conventionalities. This use of the word is derived from the wandering, free-and-easy life, led by the roving tribes of Bohemia, the gypsies.

P. 151. "*Pou sto*." Greek words written in English letters. Archimedes of Syracuse (about 287–212 B. C.), the greatest geometer and mechanic of his age, exclaimed at one time after demonstrating the working of the screw which he invented and which bears his name, "Give me *where I may stand* and I will move the world." The italicized English words are the translation of these two Greek words in the sentence which he used. In a general sense they mean a support.

P. 153. "Di-dac'tic." From the Greek verb to teach. Intended to instruct.

P. 157. "The Moodus Noises." In a letter written by the Rev. Mr. Hosmer in 1729, is the following quaint account of this remarkable phenomenon:

"I have been informed that many years past, an old Indian was asked what was the reason of the noises in this place. To which he replied that the Indian's God was very angry because the Englishman's God was come here. . . . This I know, that God Almighty is to be seen and trembled at in what has been often heard among us. Whether it be fire or air distressed in the subterraneous caverns of the earth cannot be known, for there is no eruption, no explosion perceptible but by the sounds and tremors which sometimes are very fearful and dreadful. . . . I have, I suppose, heard several hundreds of them within twenty years. . . . Oftentimes I have observed them to be coming down from the north, imitating slow thunder until the sound came near or right under, and then there seemed to be a breaking like the noise of a cannon-shot or severe thunder, which shakes the houses and all that is in them. They have in a manner ceased since the great earthquake."

"Tyr-tæ'us." A Greek poet of the seventh century, noted for his stirring marching songs of war.—"Körner." See "Classic German Course in English," page 14.

P. 159. "Doric." The Dorians were one of the four chief branches of the ancient Greek race. They were distinguished by "a character of dignified solidity, of rigid and often rough gravity," which was shown in their manners, laws, and speech. The latter was rough and broad, but strong and solemn.

P. 162. "Plā'gi(ji)-a-rizing." Stealing from the writing of another. A term derived from the Latin word for kidnaper.

P. 168. "Soph-o-mor'ic-al." Resembling a sophomore, one belonging to the second class or to the second year in a four years' consecutive course in an American college.

P. 176. "*Oratio soluta*." Free style of writing or speaking; rid of all conventionalities.

P. 185. "Dahl'gren." A gun invented by Lieut. J. A. Dahlgren of the United States army.

P. 186. "*Ante bellum*." Before the war.

P. 189. "Punch," an English publication; "Charivari" [shā-rē-vā-rē], French; and "*Fliegende Blätter*" [flē'gen-de blät'ter], German.

P. 193. "Eu-phe-mis'tic-al-ly." In the manner of a euphemism, a figure in which a delicate word or expression is substituted for a harsh or indelicate one. In its original language, the Greek, the word meant to speak well, "to use words of a good omen."

P. 196. "*Vraisemblance*," French. The appearance of truth.

P. 204. "*Dénouement*" [de-noo-mo, nasal o. See note on Rochambeau, on page 4 of the current number of this magazine]. The unraveling of a plot.

P. 207. "*Dramatis personæ*." Latin. The characters represented in a drama.

P. 210. "Charlatanism" [shar'la-tan-izm]. Quackery. From the French word for a mountebank, a tattler.

"TWO OLD FAITHS."

P. 7. "Sacerdotalism" [sas-er-dō'tal-izm]. Devotion to the interests or system of the priesthood; priestcraft.

P. 8. "Brāh'mo Sō-māj." The monotheistic religion established by Rammohun Roy. It "differs from deism in teaching the personal communion of the soul with a personal God, and from Christianity in not teaching any specific remedy for sin."

P. 9. "Archaic" [ar-kā'ic]. From a Greek word for ancient, which is from the same root as the word for beginning. Antiquated, primitive, belonging to ancient times.

P. 17. "Hy-per-bol'ic-al." Greek *uper*, beyond, *ballein*, to throw. Characterized by exaggeration. Hy-per-bo-le is a figure of speech in which the thought intended to be conveyed is

expressed in greatly exaggerated language, in language *thrown beyond* the required expression in order to make it more impressive. It indulges imagination "beyond the sobriety of truth." Dryden gives a good example of it in the following lines:

The sky shrunk upward with unusual dread,
And trembling Tiber div'd beneath his bed.

P. 18. The Greek word is the same as the Latin Uranus.

P. 21. "Fetichism" [fē'tish-ism]. "Any material object regarded with awe, as having mysterious powers resulting in it or as being the representative or habitation of a deity to which worship may be paid, and from which supernatural aid is to be expected. The word seems to have been applied by the Portuguese sailors and traders on the west coast of Africa to objects worshiped by the natives which were regarded as charms or talismans."

P. 22. "Pan-the-ist'ic." Leading to pantheism, the doctrine that there is no God but the universe as a whole; the combined forces and laws which exist in the universe.

P. 30. "*Per fas et nefas*." Latin. Through right and wrong.

P. 31. "Asceticism" [as-set'i-sizm]. Self-denial, self-sacrifice, austerity. In the early church ascetics were those who practiced unusual acts of devotion. Great austerities were inflicted upon themselves by these devotees for the purpose of subduing the bodily nature with its passions and desires as the stronghold of evil inherent in man.

P. 37. *Sensus communis*. Latin. Common sense.

P. 38. "*Volui tibi*" etc. I wished to set forth for thee in sweet-spoken Pierian song our philosophy and to sprinkle (it) as it were with sweet Mussean honey.

P. 41. "Hecatomb" [hek'a-toom]. Derived from a Greek compound word meaning a sacrifice of one hundred oxen. It retains the same meaning in its Anglicized form, and is also expanded so as to be applied to any large number of victims.

P. 45. "Linga." As the opposite—or rather the complement—of this worship, see that of the Sakti mentioned on page 54.

P. 53. "*Mare magnum*." The great sea. "Sis'y-phus." A mythical king of Corinth, famous for his robberies and his cunning, who was killed by Theseus. In the lower regions he was sentenced to constantly roll a great stone up hill, which as soon as he reached the top was to slip from his grasp and roll to the foot again.

P. 55. "*Cir-cum-am'bu-la-tion*." The act of walking around.

P. 56. "Mhar or Mang." Inhabitants of

different provinces of India; a Mhar is one who comes from the Mharatta country.

P. 64. "Tal'-mud-ist." One of the writers or compilers of the Tal'mud, the work which embodies the Jewish law, both civil and canonical. "It contains those rules and institutions by which, in addition to the Old Testament, the conduct of that nation is regulated."

"The-os'o-phists." Believers in theosophy, a philosophy based upon a claim of special insight into the divine nature. It is distinguished from other systems of belief by its claims of direct divine inspiration. It starts with an assumed knowledge of God obtained through spiritual communication.

P. 83. "Is'lam." An Arabic word meaning obedience to God. The name of the religious system of Mohammed.

P. 86. "Pallas." A name of the Roman goddess Minerva, who is said to have sprung full-armed from the head of her father, Jupiter.

P. 89. "Hegira" [he-ji'ra].

P. 90. "I-con-o-clast'ic." Given to breaking images. An iconoclast is a person decidedly hostile to the use of images in Christian worship. The name was applied especially to "those Protestants of the Netherlands who, during the reign of Philip II., riotously destroyed the images in many of the Roman Catholic churches."

"Mus'sul-man." Another name for a Mohammedan or a Moslem.

P. 92. "Abu Bekr" [ä-boö bēk'r].

P. 93. "Bedouin" [bed'oo-een]. Nomadic. These tribes are scattered over Arabia and Egypt. They live in tents which they carry with them in their wanderings.

P. 94. "Chosroes" [kos'ro-eez].

P. 95. "Subsidized." Bought by the payment of a sum of money to lend their services as auxiliary troops against the enemy.

"Roster." A list of officers for duty.

"Mobilized." Prepared for action.

P. 109. "Al Mamun" [äl mä-moon'].

P. 110. "Zō-ro-as'tri-an." Relating to Zoroaster the founder of the ancient Persian religion.

P. 128. "Ab'bas-sid."

P. 132. "Lus-trā'tion." Ceremonial purification, "especially a religious act of purgation or cleansing by the use of water or certain sacrifice or ceremonies or both, performed among the ancients upon persons, armies, cities," etc.

"Jē-june'." Empty, attenuated; uninteresting, dry, barren.

P. 134. "Ze-nā'nā." That part of the house in which, in India, the women of the family are kept; an East Indian harem.

P. 138. "*En rapport*" [oN rä-pōr. The

capital *N* indicates the French nasal sound]. In sympathetic relation.

P. 144. "Casuistry." "The solution of special problems of right and duty by the application of general ethical principles or theological dogmas; the answering of questions of conscience." In the history of theology casuistry has often been degraded into hair-splitting arguments construed to meet the requirements of selfish purposes.

P. 148. "Jerome" (about 340-420). A Latin father of the church, translator of the Bible.—"Chrysostom." See note on page 540 of THE

CHAUTAUQUAN for February.—"Cyprian." A Christian saint, bishop of Carthage, who met death as a martyr in 258.—"Augustine" (354-430). A Latin father of the church, bishop of Hippo, Africa.

For the pronunciation of the Sanscrit words scattered all through the book, it is only necessary to say that it is *represented* by the English letters when the words are translated. The prominence of the letter *a* will be noticed, to which the broad sound, or that as in father, is given. Notice it in the words Mā-hā-bhā-rā-tā, A-thār-vā.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"INITIAL STUDIES IN AMERICAN LETTERS."

1. Q. To what class of men is America largely indebted for its literature? A. College graduates.

2. Q. About what American college was there clustered for a period of years a group of brilliant literary men? A. Harvard.

3. Q. How many men, afterwards eminent in literature, graduated from Harvard during 1821-39? A. Eight.

4. Q. What two great historians graduated previous to this time? A. Prescott and Bancroft.

5. Q. Who was the most widely read and loved of all American poets? A. Longfellow.

6. Q. How is Longfellow's poetry described? A. As possessing warmth and sweetness, richness and variety.

7. Q. What effect on Longfellow had a visit to Europe? A. It imbued him deeply with a spirit of romance.

8. Q. Which is called the most imaginative of all of Longfellow's poems? A. "The Occultation of Orion."

9. Q. Which is the most American of his writings? A. "Hiawatha."

10. Q. Where did Longfellow chiefly find the source of his inspiration? A. In books.

11. Q. In what two respects is Dr. Holmes perhaps unrivaled among American writers? A. Cleverness and versatility.

12. Q. In what style of writing has he probably done more and better work than any other poet of any age or clime? A. In poems for special occasions written "to order."

13. Q. What is Holmes' masterpiece in prose? A. "The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table."

14. Q. What favorite doctrine did Dr. Holmes advance in two of his novels? A. Heredity.

15. Q. In what department did Lowell rank as the foremost of Americans? A. Criticism.

16. Q. How are his "Biglow Papers" described? A. As the most original contribution to American literature.

17. Q. Who is the greatest of American historians? A. Motley.

18. Q. What profession is the one most naturally attractive to literary men? A. Journalism.

19. Q. What American poet was for half a century an editor? A. Bryant.

20. Q. How is he characterized? A. As the meditative poet of nature.

21. Q. In what style of writing is Bryant at his best? A. Blank verse.

22. Q. What book awoke the poetic instinct in Whittier? A. A copy of Burns.

23. Q. Of what reform was Whittier the poet? A. The antislavery movement.

24. Q. Who recommended Whittier's ballads to his English countrymen as genuinely American specimens? A. John Bright.

25. Q. Which is Whittier's masterpiece in description? A. "Snow-Bound."

26. Q. Who led one of the most wretched lives in all literary history? A. Poe.

27. Q. In what relation was the best side of Poe's life shown? A. That of domestic life.

28. Q. In what realm of literature was he a subtle artist? A. That of the weird and fantastic.

29. Q. What passion do Poe's writings most frequently excite? A. That of physical fear or superstitious horror.

30. Q. What two women were conspicuous literary characters in New York during a period of years succeeding 1850? A. Alice and Phœbe Cary.

31. Q. What is named as one of the most striking literary productions of this time? A. Walt Whitman's "Leaves of Grass."

32. Q. Who was the author of the most popular novel ever written in America? A. Mrs. Stowe.

33. Q. Of the public oratory of the war what stands as the foremost example? A. Lincoln's address at Gettysburg.

34. Q. In what popular line of writing have American authors reached the culmination during the last twenty-five years? A. In humor.

35. Q. Who stand as the best of the class of humorists? A. Clemens and Browne, known under the pen names of Mark Twain and Artemus Ward.

36. Q. What story of E. E. Hale's did much to strengthen patriotism in the dark hours of the Civil War? A. "The Man Without a Country."

37. Q. With what purpose were Bret Harte's California stories written? A. To show that even in desperate characters the nobility of human nature is often asserted.

38. Q. What southern poet of rare promise died in 1881? A. Sidney Lanier.

39. Q. Who is the most important literary figure of the New South? A. George W. Cable.

40. Q. What two recent novelists have done the most toward shaping the movement of recent fiction? A. Henry James and William Dean Howells.

"TWO OLD FAITHS."

1. Q. How far back may the history of Hinduism be traced? A. Three thousand years.

2. Q. Into how many periods is its history divided? A. Three, each embracing about one thousand years.

3. Q. How many people profess this faith at the present time? A. About one hundred and ninety million.

4. Q. What is Hinduism? A. Broadly defined, it is "the religion of the people who accept the sacred books of the Brahmins"; it "includes many kinds and modes of worship addressed to an immense number of gods."

5. Q. Classify these "sacred books." A. The Vedas, consisting of four collections of hymns and formulas; the Sastras, including the Aranyakas and Upanishads; the Puranas; some add the Tantras.

6. Q. Name the prevailing aspect of the religion presented in the Vedas. A. Nature worship.

7. Q. Trace the gradual development of this form of worship. A. Gods were multiplied; the priests were raised to a powerful caste; and the rites were increased until the system became the most stupendous the earth has ever seen.

8. Q. When the ritual became extravagant and human sacrifice enormous what reaction took place? A. Buddhism arose.

9. Q. In what did the founder of Buddhism make religion to consist? A. Duty, and not rites, and duty was reduced mainly to kindness to all living things.

10. Q. What form of religion finally overwhelmed Buddhism in India? A. A revival of Brahminism, but in an altered form.

11. Q. In its present complicated form to what one ancient principle has modern Hinduism remained true? A. It upholds the pretension of the priestly caste.

12. Q. What gods form the great triad in modern Hinduism? A. Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva.

13. Q. What forms a striking characteristic of the modern system of religion? A. A form of devotion which has given rise to a large body of devotees.

14. Q. How does Hinduism compare with Christianity in the views of life taught? A. The former is a religion of despair, the latter of hope.

15. Q. To what reconstructed form of religion has the influx of Western thought and Christian ideas given rise? A. To the establishment of the Brahma Samaj, or the Church of God.

16. Q. What later reformer led a revolt against this reform? A. Keshub Chunder Sen.

17. Q. What was the movement known as Arya Samaj? A. An effort to save for the ancient sacred books their reputation for inspiration.

18. Q. What does the state of India as to religious matters now resemble? A. That which existed in the Roman Empire at the rise of Christianity.

19. Q. In what respect does Islam take precedence over all other religions? A. In the rapidity and force with which it spread.

20. Q. Into what periods was the personal ministry of Mohammed divided? A. His life at Mecca as preacher and prophet, and his life at Medina as prophet and king.

21. Q. Upon what is the system of Islam based? A. On the recognition of Mohammed as the last and greatest prophet of God.

22. Q. Upon the death of Mohammed, who forced back into allegiance the revolting Arab tribes? A. Abu Bekr.

23. Q. What gave rise to the burning zeal to propagate the new faith which so soon after ani-

mated these same Arabs? A. The promise of great plunder in battle, or, if slain, the coveted prize of the "martyr."

24. Q. What was this prize? A. A crown of glory for those who fell in "Holy War," and immediate entrance upon a life of special joys.

25. Q. Name the first lands to fall under Mohammedan sway. A. Arabia, Syria, and Persia.

26. Q. What triple alternative was offered to the people of the overrun territories? A. The acceptance of Islam, the sword, or tribute.

27. Q. Who was Al Kindy? A. A Christian Arab whose writings place in strong contrast the

doctrines and teachings of Mohammedanism and Christianity.

28. Q. Why was the spread of Islam stayed? A. Its apostles, satisfied with conquest, ceased the use of the sword to which was due its success.

29. Q. Why do Mohammedan nations hold so low a position in the march of development? A. On account of the local and inflexible character of their faith.

30. Q. What is true of slavery in the Moslem code? A. That it must be held permissible so long as the Koran is taken to be the rule of faith.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

AMERICAN FACTS AND FANCIES.

1. Against what general having only one leg did the United States forces engage in several battles?

2. On one occasion, at a council of war, when there seemed no way to get provisions for the army, Washington said, "We must consult brother Jonathan on the subject." This expression came to be used as a byword in the army, and was the origin of this title of our nationality. Who was the person of whom Washington used the words?

3. How came the Blue Laws of Connecticut to be so called?

4. In what treaty did England make provision to supply America with kidnaped negroes?

5. Why is the uniform of the cadets at West Point of gray cloth, instead of blue as worn in the regular army?

6. What soldier of twelve years of age fought in the battle of Chickamauga?

7. To what use was the frigate *Constitution* put after it was saved from destruction by the effect produced by Dr. Holmes' poem, "Old Ironsides"?

8. Of what satirical poem relating to an incident in the Revolution, was Major André the author?

9. What lost royal personage was thought to be found years afterwards in the person of Eleazar Williams, a reputed half-breed Indian missionary?

10. On board of what British prison ship is it said that eleven hundred American prisoners died during the Revolution?

BOTANY.

1. Of what does a seed consist?

2. What is meant by the albumen of a seed?

3. Describe the embryo plant as contained in the ripe seed.

4. What difference may be observed between embryos which send up two seed-leaves and those which send up only one? What difference in the resulting plants?

5. How does the seed of so-called flowerless plants differ from that of flowering plants?

6. Why in planting are seeds usually covered with soil?

7. If a seed were planted upside down what would happen to the stem and root at germination?

8. How long do seeds retain their vitality?

9. Name several natural devices for the transportation of seeds to different localities.

10. Upon what are based the following quotations:

"We have the receipt of fern-seed, we walk invisible."
—*I Henry IV., Act iv., 4.*

and

"Why, did you think that you had Gyges' ring,
Or the herb that gives invisibility?"

—*Beaumont and Fletcher, Fair Maid of the Inn, i., 1.*

WORLD OF TO-DAY—GERMANY.

1. Of how many confederated states is the empire of Germany composed?

2. When did the constitution of this empire go into force?

3. How many emperors have ruled over Germany?

4. Under what form of government did the German Empire formerly exist?

5. What rule had been established previously over part of this territory by Napoleon I.?
6. Why did France seek cause for bringing on the Franco-German War?
7. What territory did France cede to Germany at the close of this war?
8. Failure to agree with the new emperor, William II., in what question of economics was a chief cause of Bismarck's retirement?
9. What had been Bismarck's aim regarding the masses of the German people?
10. With what title has Chancellor Caprivi recently been honored by the emperor?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN
FOR MARCH.

AMERICAN FACTS AND FANCIES.

1. In 1612 a lottery was drawn in England for the profit of the Virginia Company.
2. The Continental Congress of 1776.
3. During the years 1788-1791.
4. New York City Hall in 1790.
5. In 1833.
6. Kentucky; the hotel was the Willard.
7. January 1, 1894.
8. To 1920.
9. By a vote of the people, and such a vote is to be taken in April of the present year.
10. North Dakota.

PHYSIOLOGY.

1. It is the only means by which they can be expressed.
2. The hand.
3. 261 pairs, and 5 single muscles.
4. By strong flexible bands, called tendons.
5. The tendon of Achilles, so named because the mother of the Greek hero Achilles held him when an infant, by the heel while she dipped him into the River Styx in order that she might render him immortal. The heel, because the water did not touch it, remained vulnerable, and at this weak point Paris aimed the fatal arrow which caused the death of the hero.
6. The voluntary muscles are marked by transverse stripes.
7. The heart.
8. It is greater in the lower animals.
9. The *corrugator supercilii*, or the wrinkler of the eyebrow. Haughtiness commonly expresses itself by the raising of the eyebrow; hence the substitution of the derivation from the Latin word for eyebrow, *supercilium*, as the name for pride or arrogance.
10. The Latin *musculus* which means muscle and also little mouse, and which itself comes from *mus*, mouse. The more prominent muscles when in motion have some resemblance to a mouse, which is supposed to have given rise to this use of the word.

BOTANY.

1. Air, water, and material from which it may obtain the elements nitrogen, phosphate, cal-

cium, potassium, sulphur, magnesium, iron, and usually also chlorine.

2. A soil containing these elements in form and proportion suited to the plant.
3. Some of it in a state of solution is imbibed by the hairlike extensions of the roots, but a greater part in a gaseous state is absorbed by the leaves.
4. Only in the lower forms of vegetation. In the higher forms the roots perform all of this work.
5. The conversion of mineral matter into vegetable matter, supposed to be effected principally in the leaves by the action of sunlight and absorbed gases upon the crude sap.
6. The movement of sap in the tree has puzzled botanists for nearly two centuries, and is not completely demonstrated yet; but the best authorities agree in thinking that the sap taken up by the roots, ascends the stem to the leaves by osmose and capillarity of the wood fibers; after its assimilation by the leaves, it returns down the bark to parts where growth is taking place, or to the roots, stems, etc., where it is stored.
7. It is generally supposed that as the sap evaporates through the leaves and young shoots (a process called transpiration), and is used up by the growing parts, more sap rises to take its place.
8. In summer when the leaves are out the upward attraction caused by transpiration, growth, etc., largely overcomes the force of gravity and the outward pressure of the sap, which occurs when the sap is crowded; in winter no transpiration or assimilation takes place and the watery matters are dense with starch and other insoluble substances in suspension, while under the influence of the increased heat and light of spring these substances change to soluble dextrin, sugar, etc., which by dissolving give greater liquidity to the sap.
9. Experiments showed that plants thrived when lighted by electric light six hours a day; and those exposed to the usual daylight alternated with electric light were thrifter and deeper colored both in foliage and flowers than those exposed only to daylight, other conditions being equal.
10. Syrup, sugar, glucose, turpentine, caoutchouc, and gums of various kinds.

WORLD OF TO-DAY—MEXICO.

1. The cypress under which Cortez sat and wept on the sad night, *Noche triste*, July 1, 1520, when he and the remnant of his army made their escape from the capital city.
2. Hidalgo.
3. Morelos.
4. September 27, 1821.
5. Yturbe.
6. General Victoria.
7. General Santa Anna.
8. That it was one of the most unjust waged by a stronger against a weaker nation.
9. France.
10. Juarez.
11. That he is usurping tyrannical power.
12. Twenty-seven, besides a federal district and two territories.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1895.

CLASS OF 1892.—"THE COLUMBIA."

"Seek and ye shall obtain."

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CLASS FLOWER—CARNATION.

THE following request has been received:
 "Will all members of the Class of '92 who are interested in the Chautauqua Assembly at Lake View, South Framingham, please contribute paper pinks for decoration on Recognition Day."
 MARIETTA W. DYER, '92.

Two missionary members of the Class of '92 who are visiting America for the first time in ten years, are looking forward to a sojourn at Chautauqua. One writes: "Three years ago we began the C. L. S. C. work. At times we found it very difficult to get the required time for study. Then came the last year of our stay in India and with it illness in the family, then the long journey home, and the care of four little ones on the voyage. This will give you an idea of the discouragements that have met us. A C. L. S. C. book or THE CHAUTAUQUAN has ever been a present friend, though sometimes not opened for days. We had been so constantly in the native work that we felt very rusty in English. I know of no better thing for missionaries than the C. L. S. C. It keeps us up in our English and alive as to what is going on in the world."

FROM a home missionary: "I'm way behind again but not quite so far as last year. I am glad I am in the C. L. S. C. work, for if I were not, that kind of reading would be crowded out."

"I WANT to tell you that I am very grateful for the Chautauqua course. Although this is my last year, I intend my C. L. S. C. readings shall not stop with it."—'92.

"HAVING my hands filled with the duties connected with farming which devolves upon one woman, little time is left for me to devote to studying or writing, but such as I have is for my Alma Mater, to me a great blessing, lifting my spirit from drudgery to intelligence."—'92.

CLASS OF 1893.—"THE ATHENIANS."

"Study to be what you wish to seem."

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Building Committee—The Rev. R. C. Dodds, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. H. M. Anthony, Ottawa, Ill.
EMBLEM—THE ACORN.

LETTER FROM A VICE PRESIDENT: Mr. President and Classmates of '93: Here we are traveling onward, in the third year of our course, and what a delightful study we have, with one's own country the subject and always something new coming to us as we progress in our "Required Readings." As I sit in my study to-night I think how we are linked to all quarters of the globe by this bond of study, and my mind travels swiftly to all, wherever they may be. I ask: What is time doing for each one? The echo comes: "Known only to Him who hath all hearts in His keeping." Michael Angelo said to the young sculptor, "Do not trouble yourself too much about the light on your statue. The light of the public square will test its value." So let us learn that truth alone makes rich and great, and, pressing on with our motto and emblem ever in view, at last reach the goal with our work well and faithfully done.

Yours in the work,

HELEN M. ANTHONY.

Ottawa, Ill., January 12, 1892.

STATEMENT OF THE TREASURER:—The returns from the cards sent out have been so far quite satisfactory. We have had 144 returns, ranging in amounts from 10 cents to \$2.00. It would be very gratifying if we might receive more \$2 or even \$1 donations. The average has been about 30 cents. It is very desirable that those who have received cards should re-

spond as promptly as possible, for it cannot be raised unless the members of the class respond.

W. H. SCOTT, Treasurer Class of '93.

Two members of '93 from Nebraska write: "Herewith find draft for one dollar. Please send white seal questions for examination for this year. We are sixty-four and fifty-four years of age respectively, but we hardly know how we should spend these long winter evenings without the C. L. S. C. readings."

CLASS OF 1894.—"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

"*Ubi mel, ibi apes.*"

OFFICERS.

President—John Habberton, New York City.
Vice Presidents—The Rev. A. C. Ellis, Jamestown, N. Y.
the Rev. E. D. Ledyard, Steubenville, Ohio; the Rev. L. A. Banks, Boston, Mass.; the Rev. J. A. Cosby, Benkelman, Neb.; the Rev. Dr. Livingston, Toronto, Canada; Mrs. Helen Campbell, New York City; the Rev. J. W. Lee, D. D., Atlanta, Ga.

Secretary—Miss Grace D. Fowler, Buffalo, N. Y.
Treasurer—Mr. Henry M. Hall, Titusville, Pa.
Class Trustee—W. T. Everson, Union City, Pa.
Building Committee—William T. Everson, Union City, Pa.; Henry M. Hall, Titusville, Pa.; Mr. C. Foskey, Shamburg, Pa.; Miss Grace D. Fowler, Buffalo, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—CLOVER.

WHAT Chautauqua means in South America the following letter from a '94, sets forth. Our correspondent writes from Bogota: "When the books reached me they found me ready for my vacation so I packed the Oriental History books with my mosquito netting and the other essentials for a trip in this country. I read nearly all the Oriental History books while seated on a large rock at the union of the Rio Negro and the Rio Blanco, with the Andes Mountains all around me and nothing more modern for miles than the thatched roof of the poor Indian. I am now back in Bogota and the Chautauqua books are filling my spare moments. The wife and daughter of our United States Minister are reading. I think we are alone in our work in this country."

CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."

"*The truth shall make you free.*"

President—Dr. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.
Vice Presidents—The Rev. Dr. Wilbur Crafts, New York; Miss Grace Dodge, New York; Mrs. Olive A. James, Rimersburg, Pa.; Miss Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mr. Frank O. Flynn, Belleville, Ont.; the Rev. William M. Hayes, Oxford, Ga.; the Rev. Hervey Wood, Passaic, N. J.; Mrs. E. H. Durgin, Portland, Ore.; Miss Carrie L. Turrentine, Gadsden, Ala.; Mr. Thomas Nelson Page, Richmond, Va.; Mrs. F. H. I. Goddard, Providence, R. I.; Prof. J. A. Woodburn, Indiana University.

Corresponding Secretary—Jane Mead Welch, Buffalo, N. Y.
Recording Secretary—Miss Mary E. Miller, Akron, O.
Treasurer—Mrs. E. C. Thompson, Litchfield, Ill.
Trustee of the Building Fund—The Rev. Fred. L. Thompson, Litchfield, Ill.

A MEMBER of '95 asks when she may wear a

badge; for the benefit of other Chautauquans we would say that once enrolled in the Central Office you are a Chautauquan and entitled to all the privileges of membership. You may conquer all obstacles and take your place with the graduates of the C. L. S. C. or you may fall far behind in the race, yet "once a Chautauquan, always a Chautauquan." It is interesting to hear this same member of '95 report, "I have never been behindhand with my work and always manage to do a good deal of reading besides that which is required."

THE Class of '95 still keeps well ahead of '94 in enrollment; but there are probably many readers who are faithfully reading the books and THE CHAUTAUQUAN who have not yet enrolled at the Central Office. We urge membership in the class for three reasons: First, because the helps sent out by the Central Office will be found of real value; again, because an enrolled member feels under a slight obligation to uphold the record of the class, and that pressure, be it ever so light, has kept many a student from falling out by the way; lastly, the Central Office wants to know the names of all working members, that through co-operation the C. L. S. C. may be most wisely developed.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

GRADUATE members of the C. L. S. C. who have been anxiously awaiting the revision of the "House and Home" course will be interested to know that the course will be completed, memoranda prepared and ready for announcement not later than April 1. Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller, who is at the head of the Woman's Club at Chautauqua, has been appointed director of this course, and the books recommended will be found of the greatest value to all who are interested in the problems which enter into home life.

THE special graduate courses in English History and Literature and in American History have met with much favor and all graduates will be interested to know that important additions will be made to this department during the present year. A course in the History of Art is being prepared by an eminent authority on this subject. Special arrangements are pending for valuable courses relating to foreign countries, European travel, etc. Greek History and Literature will also receive special attention, and graduates who desire to make special preparation for the World's Fair will find valuable aid in many of these courses.

THE special courses in Bible study, including

LOCAL CIRCLES.

the Life of Christ and the Gospel of John have enrolled many students during the past few months, and another addition to these courses will be welcomed with much interest. Arrangements have been made with the American Institute of Sacred Literature to recognize as a seal course of the C. L. S. C. their course on "The Founding of the Christian Church" based on a study of the Acts, the Epistles, and the Revelation. Students enrolling for this course will pay a fifty-cent fee to the Office of the Institute and receive in return a list of recommended helps, directions for study, and in due time the examination paper. An extra fee of twenty-five cents paid directly to the office of the C. L. S. C. will entitle each member who passes the Institute examination to a special seal. A circular giving full details can be secured upon application to the Central Office.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN for February mention was made under the "Graduate Classes" of a

member who had through many obstacles succeeded in keeping up with the course, but this year felt unable to subscribe for THE CHAUTAUQUAN. That issue had been out only a short time when three letters were received by the editor from persons offering to send their magazine to this reader. This expression of kindly interest has suggested the thought that there may be many persons who would be glad to send their magazines when they have read them to others less favored. Just at this time comes a letter from a student in West Virginia begging for copies of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for needy ministers and their families. Where a minister is working on the smallest possible salary, and can afford nothing for books, a magazine would be appreciated as only those who have suffered similar privations can fully appreciate. Any members desiring to send away their copies of THE CHAUTAUQUAN can report to the Buffalo office and an address will be given.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

HAWTHORNE DAY—March 29.

WHITTIER DAY—April 15.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

THE midwinter budget from circles reveals the alarming hold of the monster Grip upon the country. Circles far and wide have been struggling with the grasp which paralyzes for a time. In it all, not a despairing note has reached the Recipient's ears. Circles announce, one after another, their resolve to fight it out if it takes all summer. Chautauqua does not, like conscience, make cowards of us all, but spurs the strong and strengthens the weak.

A marked movement has begun toward closer union of Chautauqua forces. Cleveland's five circles have recently formed a Union, giving rise to heightened efforts by the separate circles. Omic of that city has challenged Taylor to a joint debate for which both are vigorously preparing. Omic asserts it has been greatly helped by visits to other circles. Enterprise in that circle has taken shape in a monthly jour-

nal, the combined production of members.

The Chautauqua Union of New York City held a delightful reception recently, brightened by addresses and music, Brooklyn sending a contingent of representatives.

A rarely enjoyable occasion also was that on which the Montgomery, Mo., Circle tendered Jonesburg Circle a reception and dinner, followed by toasts loudly heralding Chautauqua's praises, and promising greater assistance to each other in the scheme of home culture.

The Chautauqua Circles in Chicago have united in an effort to arouse a greater Chautauqua interest in that city. At a recent meeting of the officers of the local circles of the city more than a dozen circles were represented. The meeting was conducted by Principal William R. Harper and much enthusiasm was manifested. The immediate outcome of this meet-

ing will be a "Rally" of all Chautauquans in the vicinity of Chicago, to be held on the evening of April 21 in the First Methodist Church in that city. Bishop Vincent will preside. President Harper and other prominent men will make speeches. A reception will follow the addresses. Admission will be by tickets, which may be had by addressing Miss G. L. Chamberlin, 391 55th St., Hyde Park, Chicago.

NEW CIRCLES.

MAINE.—Eight new Chautauquans at South Freeport who have been working all the year, have pledged themselves to the whole course.—Whittier Circle has just organized at Turner, expecting to bring up the whole year's work.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Thornton Circle, a new growth at Nashua, began with twenty-two members, and finds weekly meetings indispensable.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Clark Circle of Jamaica Plain reports a reading list of twenty members.—Agoganset Circle of Marlboro has fifteen members enrolled.—Boston reports a new Keep Pace Circle, some members attending from neighboring towns.—The following report comes from Southampton: "Good Cheer C. L. S. C. of this place is a small but very enthusiastic one. We hold meetings regularly every second and fourth Monday evening of each month, devoting the first meeting of the month to American Literature by the discussion of, or quotations from, some author or authors, and the last meeting to review and roll call of quotations. Last week we spent a very interesting session in the discussion of Benjamin Franklin's life and work. At our next session Edison, the inventor of electrical appliances, will be the theme, thus linking the past to the present."

CONNECTICUT.—A number of '95's form the Alert Circle at South Norwalk and Algæ Circle of New London.

NEW YORK.—Members of the new circle at Fulton are taking a course of Bible study with Chautauqua work.—The Washington Irving Circle at Irvington announces itself more than pleased with the course.—The Chautauqua Union of New York City is strengthened by the formation of the Mountaineer Circle, which is hewing steadily to the line.—Home Circle of Summit Station, Columbia Circle at Port Byron, Franklin Circle at Rochester, and a number of new readers at Schenectady send their first welcome greetings as Chautauquans.—A tempting array of topics is set forth in the programs of the Lowell Circle of Brooklyn, a recent letter from which states that the circle aims at nothing but instruction. Questions are prepared on slips, distributed, and responded to by members.

NEW JERSEY.—The pleasant new Emerson Circle of Burlington has "talks" on the lesson topics, finding them very profitable.—A small circle has taken root at Milltown.—A congenial set of friends at Jersey City have found that "Chautauqua is a profitable investment" and have formed Una Circle with fourteen members.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A large new circle that has for some time been at work, has just reported from Wampum.—"Come to thine own aid," is the independent sounding motto of the new circle at Shannonville.—Members of the new circle at Verona have the inspiration of large numbers.—Welcome reports come in from the circles at Fernwood and Mansfield.—The More Light Circle at Meadville is gaining its object this year through acquaintance with American authors.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—One feature of the meetings of the Georgetown Circle is worthy of imitation; two or more character sketches are given, the members being left to guess the subjects. Accurate description and diligent study are the results.

VIRGINIA.—The little circle at Snyder, interfered with by sickness, has again mustered bravely to the work.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—The new Home Circle at Columbia having recovered from the grip, rejoices to take up the lines.—In October last a large new circle of about twenty members calling themselves "Knights of the Round Table" was organized at Chester. Meetings are reported instructive and well attended.

OHIO.—Quotations, biographical sketches, talks on current topics, and papers on lesson subjects furnish programs for the Akronians of Akron.—The eleven new readers at Carrollton are reported to be industriously seeking additions.—A force of twenty new Chautauquans are at work at Lorain, promising a new class next year.—Toronto Circle has struggled for existence, and is rewarded by a fully equipped organization.—The Buckeye Dozen at Westerville have already increased to sixteen, determined to "shine" rather than "cast a shadow."—West Unity and Montpelier both report a much larger number of local readers than are enrolled. Regular members should persuade these to unite with the central C. L. S. C.—Sandusky, Lithopolis, and Shiloh Circles report creditable numbers and good foundations.—The Columbian Circle of North Columbus opens with good promise.—'95's are increased by a branch at Cincinnati in connection with St. Paul M. E. Church.

MICHIGAN.—A small circle enthusiastically keeping pace is found at Grand Haven.—The

thriving circle at Litchfield which began six weeks behind is now even with the lessons.—A second circle is organized at Battle Creek called the Truthseekers.—A goodly number have formed a society at Mancelona, devoted to Chautauqua readings.—Seventeen new readers hold highly interesting meetings at Plainwell, the science lesson being recently illustrated by the dissection of a heart.—Grip has wrought havoc in the circle at Salem, now struggling bravely to regain its foothold.

INDIANA.—A home reading circle at Pierceton brings to three members of a family much enjoyment.

WISCONSIN.—A teacher's circle at Green Bay is making a specialty of the history department, finding in it abundant work for one evening of the week.—Footville sends an encouraging report, the entire circle having enrolled at the central office.

ILLINOIS.—The opening of the year witnessed the birth of a flourishing new circle at Sandwich.—“Good attendance and warm interest,” is the news from the circle at Bloomington, which is first in the field to propose that Chautauqua and her beneficent work be represented at the World's Fair.—Pinckneyville and Gilman Circles are on their way rejoicing.

MINNESOTA.—A course of lectures has been arranged by the circle at Dundas.

IOWA.—Irving Circle of Emmetsburg conducts its meetings in a dignified manner, adhering to the main lines of study.—A limited number of readers at St. Ansgar will reap the benefit of labor in the face of discouragements.—A writer from West Bend Circle vouches that it is doing excellent work.—Other '95's are found at Carson.

MISSOURI.—Lockwood has a circle with the unpronounceable name of Healdneem, which holds the Chautauqua banner high.—Good Templar Lodge Circle, of Arkoe has consolidated two worthy endeavors.

LOUISIANA.—Crescent City Circle of New Orleans has an active set of readers.

NEBRASKA.—North Bend is favored with an entirely new society numbering eighteen, which has preferred Chautauqua readings to other literary work.

KANSAS.—The hearty will evinced by the circle of two dozen at Hutchinson, is all needed to make up back work speedily.—Prometheus Circle of Dodge City promises satisfactory accomplishments.

TEXAS.—Blanco is the scene of a new Lone Star Circle, the Orestes.

OREGON.—A finely equipped circle, the Columbian, at Albina, is bringing out the abili-

ties of each member by assigning subjects to every one of the twenty-one members.—Marshfield and Jefferson Circles are anxious to “finish the year if it takes all summer.”

CALIFORNIA.—Florence sends in a bright report of a new circle.—Angels' Camp is the fitting abode of a circle, nearly all of whom are central members.—Ramona Circle of San Luis Obispo pencils down its thoughts while studying, to be shared by all members at meetings.—At a recent “open meeting” held by the Central Circle of San Francisco, which rolls up a membership of thirty-five, ladies responded to roll call with domestic news, and gentlemen with events of the foreign world. One paper was on “What the C. L. S. C. is doing.” The critic's reports of this circle are pungent and keen.

NEW GRADUATE CIRCLES.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Graduates of '91 are organized at Williamsport to pursue the English history graduate course.

INDIANA.—'91's at Auburn are at work upon the American Garnet Seal Course, the habit of study being too strong to give up.

OLD CIRCLES.

HAWAII.—An interesting letter comes from Hilo, where is a very wide-awake circle whose report proves it to be a gem of the ocean. Members come to class with questions suggested by the readings, which are distributed to be studied up for the following meeting. Valuable discussions are thus often elicited.

CANADA.—St. John, N. B., mail brings news of an increase in Athena Circle.

MAINE.—Spruce Creek Circle of Kittery has a number of white seal readers this year.—“We should not know what to do without our circle,” writes Semalpha Circle of Bath.—Omega Circle of Westbrook is again at work and prospering.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Whittier Circle of Newton “digests all it masticates,” and makes a point of observing special days.—Weetamoo Circle of Campton Village, now in its third year's work, numbers thirteen regular and twelve local members, and has secured two lecturers this winter.—Lakeside Circle of Meredith is also reorganized.

VERMONT.—An addition of six new members has been enjoyed by Alpha Circle of Rutland.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Tremont Circle of Boston makes a special endeavor to interest members of Tremont Street M. E. Church. Its annual reception has recently been given. Beacon Circle also of Boston, has increased this year, and follows fully programs as given.—Plympton Cir-

cle and Mark Hopkins Circle of Dalton are agreeably heard from.

CONNECTICUT.—Clover Leaf Circle of Suffield is to be commended for its adherence to profitable topics during its meeting hour.—The second year of Aurora Circle of New Haven promises even greater interest than the first.—Aurora Circle of Middletown, being in a college town, is at present not quite decided as to its future, certain members holding pluckily to the cause.

NEW YORK.—The Brooklyn Assembly recently gave an enjoyable social, special features aside from music and recitations being conversations on Colonial Life, Boston Tea Party, American Indians, and Religious Zeal and Fanaticism. Ad Astra of the same city, reports its reorganization this month.—“Not disbanded but scattered,” is the inscription applying to the Cubic Circle at Pulaski, which has suffered from removals and now finds itself reduced to a nucleus.—Hoosick Falls, Northville, and Canton Circles, and Kingsley Circle of Angelica show varying degrees of prosperity, none being willing to give up the ship.—Brocton Circle now in its third year has a fair recruitment of '95's.—Hannibal also numbers four more members than last year.—The Steadfast Circle of Binghamton, true to its name produces programs of increasing interest, including question boxes, quizzes, and critics' reports.—The Brooklyn Chautauqua Alumni Association is in a flourishing condition, numbering fifty-six graduates. Interesting meetings are held monthly.

NEW JERSEY.—Olga Circle at New Market is proceeding on its usual line of advance.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Numerous additions have been received to the Life Builders at Hennett Square now numbering twenty-eight; all members take some part in questions or papers.—The plan found most successful by the Dubois Circle, New London, is to hold an informal quiz each two weeks on the topics read.—Three recruits have been added to Oakdale Circle which reports enjoyment of present labors.—The circle at Cross Creek claims energy inversely to its numbers, which are small this year.—The circle of Montrose sheds its rays over the town by supporting the public library. It now means to get six hundred more volumes.—The report from Aryan Circle of Wiconisco bristles with intelligence of the most welcome kind to Chautauqua. The circle numbering eleven includes all ages from a score to three times that age, the secretary declaring that when engaged in the work all are young and enthusiastic as school-boys and girls. The circle meets semi-monthly, several of the members holding informal study meetings between times.

DELAWARE.—More than double the membership of last year is enjoyed by Longfellow Circle of Wilmington.

OHIO.—Marietta boasts of a cosy working number, with several new faces.

MICHIGAN.—The Beacon Lights of Copac are evidently illuminating that region, numbering thirty-two reported to be splendidly at work.—Rockford Circle having had a hard pull through sickness and epidemic is now on its feet.—Afflictions have also befallen the circle at Kalamazoo which still remains undaunted.—North End Circle of Detroit wheels into line as of old.

INDIANA.—The Bryant Circle at Terre Haute should bring its large local membership under the central banner.—Gillespie Kimball Circle of Mishawaka has a large and increasing membership.

WISCONSIN.—Fox Lake readers include a number taking the Garnet Seal Course.—Maple Leaf Circle of Waukesha has taken deep root now reaching a membership of ninety-six.—Delta Circle of Milwaukee states that it “increases every year.”

ILLINOIS.—Interesting meetings are held by Austin Circle, which has had recent additions.—“We are a go-as-you-please circle but thoroughly interested,” report the Gleaners of Aurora, who harvested a full crop last summer.—One reader who pursued the course alone last year at De Kalb, is reinforced this year by sixteen new members.—A teachers' circle at Colehour adheres to simple “catechisms” on the various lesson topics.—Milford Progressive Circle is holding its own.—A “final review” was the special feature of a social recently held by the Pathfinders at Marseilles. A spirited program, refreshments, and souvenirs characterized the occasion.—Matoon Circle, which for two years laid out its own course, has now adopted THE CHAUTAUQUAN'S.—The English History and Literature Circle of Elgin and the Marengo Circle both send encouraging accounts.—Chicago Outlook Circle adds to its programs special exercises in way of pronunciation drill, timely topics, historical games, or spelling bees, which furnish agreeable cement for the solid structures.—Oak Circle of Ravenswood has again taken shape for the year.

KENTUCKY.—Ghent Circle will accomplish the required work despite some obstacles.

MINNESOTA.—“Average attendance is very good and we are doing more thorough work than ever,” is the good news from Hamline St. Paul Circle.—Elk River Circle maintains a course of five lectures and takes one subject at a time.—Minneopa Circle of Blue Earth City has an average attendance of over sixty; each month

a social is given to which post graduates and friends are invited.—Committees on programs of the Appleton Circle serve but one month. The circle finds that to do all regular work, interferes with keeping any memorial days.

IOWA.—A bright letter from the Octavians of East Des Moines gives evidence of skillfully conducted endeavors of that circle.—Shriner Circle of Wilton Junction can boast of an increase of fourteen over last year's membership.—Members of the busy Amplean Circle of Mt. Vernon prepare questions on slips to take to meetings for drawing and answering.—Good news is at hand concerning the Philomathean Circle of Coon Rapids, Zetagathian Circle of Kosuth, and Smith's Villa Circle of Sioux City.

MISSOURI.—Y. M. Post Circle of St. Louis, intersperses its meetings with current topics and topics specially interesting to the circle.—Fire-side Circle of the same city follows THE CHAUTAUQUAN programs closely.—Pickwickians of Kansas City reserve the last meeting of each month for general matters of interest outside strict course work.—Marionville Circle, Philomatheans of Malta Bend, and Slater Circle expect to complete the year evenly.—The secretary of Shamrock Circle of Holden writes as follows: "We have without exception one of the most live circles in the state. From two or three, we have grown to over thirty in two years. By most substantially demonstrating to our local editors that our progress is only another example of the 'survival of the fittest,' we have at last enlisted their ink bottles and quills in our cause. The attention of the public is now centered on our circle and we are every day arousing new interest and gaining new advocates to our work. Owing to our increasing numbers we have thought it expedient to procure the Y. M. C. A. social parlors for one evening of each week for our assembly. In this way we attract large numbers of our best young men, who have only to attend as visitors, when they put their names before the circle as candidates for membership. We have the brainiest, brightest, and wittiest among our number. We are mostly composed of ministers, school-teachers, and college graduates. Our enthusiasm is always the same, at fever heat. With us there is no standstill in life, as without advancement there is retrogression."

NORTH DAKOTA.—Cheering news comes in from Sappho Circle of St. Thomas and Bathgate Circle both of which are gathering strength.

NEBRASKA.—A pithy letter comes from Red Cloud whose circle graduated its six original members last June. Numbering sixteen at present, it has secured a course of lectures by

one of the State University professors — Schuyler, Bennet, and Central City Circles are marching on firmly.

KANSAS.—Adams Circle of Topeka foots a large list of members, full of eagerness.—Persistence characterizes Chapman Circle, which began last year four months behind but proposes completing the course.—The Atlanteans of Minneapolis keep their membership at fifteen, now including ten graduates and five seniors.—Co-operation is the keynote of the circle at Anthony. One member contributed a hall, all carpeted it, each furnishing his chair; table and pictures, fuel and lamps, were also contributed.—The Ascendants of Independence are still climbing.

TEXAS.—Mistletoe Circle of Taylor composed of over a dozen teachers finds the course "not only full of information but full of relaxation," a feature truly Chautauquan.—Lampasas Circle has doubled this year.—The thirty-five Pierians of Dallas who have not missed two meetings in five years, are doing an excellent work. Meetings are of a high order.—The Lone Star Circle of Columbus has retained its graduates and reports a very fruitful year.

COLORADO.—Denver mail tells of South Broadway Circle of sixteen, some of whose members have belonged six years.—Pike's Peak Circle of Colorado Springs includes a study of American statesmen with other topics.—In Otis Circle, outline maps are prepared on which are traced campaigns.

NEVADA.—Argentea Circle of twenty members at Virginia publishes a paper for which members are required to furnish contributions. The monthly reading is an interesting event.—Prometheus Circle of Austin has several seal readers.

WYOMING.—Cicilian Circle of Cheyenne is marching on.

IDAHO.—Challis readers are too scattered to meet regularly but do the readings and review them as often as possible.

CALIFORNIA.—Norton Circle of Pacific Grove now in its seventh year meets informally to discuss lesson topics.—Marengo Avenue Circle numbering thirty-three at Pasadena has another circle in the same place to compete with.—Castalian Circle of San Francisco reports its membership as composed of working people, with limited leisure, the sample program sent being creditable indeed.—Meetings of Selma Circle afford members an opportunity to propound questions suggested by study.—A few ladies by steady efforts have made the circle at San Mateo a true means of self-culture.—Y. M. C. A. Circle of San José is again at work.

THE LIBRARY TABLE.

EASTER DAWN.

Breaks the joyful Easter dawn,
Clearer yet, and stronger;
Winter from the world has gone,
Death shall be no longer!
Far away good angels drive
Night and sin and sadness;
Earth awakes in smiles, alive
With her dear Lord's gladness.

Roused by Him from dreary hours
Under snowdrifts chilly,—
In His hand He brings the flowers,
Brings the rose and lily.
Every little buried bud
Into life He raises;
Every wild flower of the wood
Chants the dear Lord's praises.

Open, happy flowers of spring,
For the Sun has risen!
Through the sky glad voices ring,
Calling you from prison.
Little children dear, look up!
Towards His brightness pressing,
Lift up every heart, a cup
For the dear Lord's blessing.

—From *Lucy Larcom's Poetical Works*.*

THE HEGIRA.

THE fortunes of Mahomet were becoming darker and darker in his native place. Upward of ten years had elapsed since first he announced his prophetic mission; ten long years of enmity, trouble, and misfortune.

The persecutions of the Moslems were resumed with increased virulence. Some advised that Mahomet should be banished from the city; but it was objected that he might gain other tribes to his interest, or perhaps the people of Medina, and return at their head to take revenge. Others proposed to wall him up in a dungeon and supply him with food until he died; but it was surmised that his friends might effect his escape. At length it was declared that the only effectual check on the growing evil was to put Mahomet to death. . . . By the time the murderers arrived before the dwelling of Mahomet, he was apprised of the impending danger. As usual, the warning is attributed to the angel Gabriel, but it is probable it was given by some

Koreishite, less bloody-minded than his confederates. It came just in time to save Mahomet from the hands of his enemies. They paused at his door but hesitated to enter. Looking through a crevice, they beheld, as they thought, Mahomet wrapped in his green mantle lying asleep on his couch. They waited for a while, consulting whether to fall on him while sleeping or wait until he should go forth. At length they burst open the door and rushed toward the couch. The sleeper started up; but instead of Mahomet, Ali stood before them. Amazed and confounded, they demanded, "Where is Mahomet?" "I know not," replied Ali sternly, and walked forth; nor did any one venture to molest him.

Divers accounts are given of the mode in which Mahomet made his escape from the house after the faithful Ali had wrapped himself in his mantle and taken his place upon the couch. The most miraculous account is, that he opened the door silently, as the Koreishites stood before it, and, scattering a handful of dust in the air, cast such blindness upon them that he walked through the midst of them without being perceived. This, it is added, is confirmed by the verse of the 30th chapter of the Koran: "We have thrown blindness upon them, that they shall not see."

The most probable account is that he clambered over the wall in the rear of the house, by the help of a servant, who bent his back for him to step upon it.

He repaired immediately to the house of Abu Beker, and they arranged for instant flight. They left Mecca while it was yet dark, making their way on foot by the light of the stars, and the day dawned as they found themselves at the foot of Mount Thor. Scarce were they within the cave when they heard the sound of pursuit. Abu Beker, though a brave man, quaked with fear. "Our pursuers," said he, "are many and we are but two." "Nay," replied Mahomet, "there is a third; God is with us!"

The fugitives remained for three days undiscovered in the cave, and then they ventured forth, and set out for Medina, on camels which a servant of Abu Beker had brought in the night for them.

The Moslems of Mecca, who had taken refuge some time before in Medina, hearing that Mahomet was at hand, came forth to meet him at Koba, which place he reached after several days.

*Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

These, seeing the travel-stained garments of Mahomet and Abu Beker, gave them white mantles, with which to make their entrance into Medina.

Learning from them that the number of proselytes in the city was rapidly augmenting, and that there was a general disposition to receive him favorably, he appointed Friday, the Moslem sabbath, the sixteenth day of the month Rabi, for his public entrance.

Accordingly on the morning of that day he assembled all his followers, and set forth for that city, which was to become renowned in after ages as his city of refuge.

The city of Medina was fair to approach, being extolled for beauty of situation, salubrity of climate, and fertility of soil; for the luxuriance of its palm-trees and the fragrance of its shrubs and flowers. At a short distance from the city a crowd of new proselytes to the faith came forth in the sun and dust to meet the cavalcade. Most of them had never seen Mahomet, and paid reverence to Abu Beker through mistake; but the latter put aside the screen of palm-leaves, and pointed out the real object of homage, who was greeted with loud acclamations.

In this way did Mahomet so recently a fugitive from his native city, with a price upon his head, enter Medina, more as a conqueror in triumph than an exile seeking an asylum.

Such is the story of the memorable Hegira, or "Flight of the Prophet," the era of the Arabian Calendar, from which time is calculated by all true Moslems; it corresponds to the 622d year of the Christian era.—*Washington Irving.*

CHARMS AND FAIRY FAITH.

"Up the airy mountain,
Down the rushy glen,
We daren't go a hunting,
For fear of little men.
Wee folk, good folk,
Trooping all together;
Green jacket, red cap,
Gray cock's feather."

—*Allingham.*

It was from a profound knowledge of human nature that Lord Bacon, in discoursing upon truth, remarked that a mixture of a lie doth ever add pleasure. This admitted tendency of our nature, this love of the pleasing intoxication of unverity, exaggeration, and imagination, may perhaps account for the high relish which children and nations yet in the childhood of civilization find in fabulous legends and tales of wonder. The Arab at the present day listens with eager interest to the same tales of genii and afrits,

sorcerers and enchanted princesses, which delighted his ancestors in the times of Haroun al Raschid. The gentle church-going Icelander of our time beguiles the long night of his winter with the very sagas and runes which thrilled with not unpleasing horror the hearts of the old Norse sea-robbers.

What child, though Anglo-Saxon born, escapes a temporary sojourn in fairyland? Who of us does not remember the intense satisfaction of throwing aside primer and spelling book for stolen ethnographical studies of dwarfs and giants? Even in our own country and time old superstitions and credulities still cling to life with feline tenacity. Here and there, oftenest in our fixed, valley-sheltered, inland villages,—slumberous Rip Van Winkles, unprogressive and seldom visited,—may be found the same old beliefs in omens, warnings, witchcraft, and supernatural charms which our ancestors brought with them two centuries ago from Europe.

It is not to be denied, and for truth's sake not to be regretted, that this amusing juvenile glummary has seen its best days in New England. The schoolmaster has been abroad to some purpose. Yet nature, sooner or later, vindicates her mysteries; voices from the unseen penetrate the din of civilization. The child philosopher and materialist often becomes the visionary of riper years, running into illuminism, magnetism, and transcendentalism, with its inspired priests and priestesses, its revelations and oracular responses.

But in many a green valley of rural New England there are children yet to be found, boys and girls who are not quite overtaken by the march of mind. There, too, are huskings, and apple bees, and quilting parties, and huge old-fashioned fireplaces piled with crackling walnut, flinging its rosy light over happy countenances of youth and scarcely less happy age. If it be true that, according to Cornelius Agrippa, "a wood fire doth drive away dark spirits," it is, nevertheless, also true that around it the simple superstitions of our ancestors still love to linger; and there the half-sportful, half-serious charms of which I have spoken are oftenest resorted to. And who of us, looking backward to long autumnal evenings of childhood when the glow of the kitchen fire rested on the beloved faces of home, does not feel that there is truth and beauty in what the quaint old author affirms! "As the spirits of darkness grow stronger in the dark, so good spirits, which are angels of light, are multiplied and strengthened, not only by the divine light of the sun and stars, but also by the light of our common wood fires." Even Lord Bacon, in condemning the

superstitious beliefs of his day, admits that they might serve for winter talk around the fireside.

Fairy faith is, we may safely say, now dead everywhere,—buried, indeed,—for the mad painter Blake saw the funeral of the last of the little people, and an irreverent English bishop has sung their requiem. It never had much hold upon the Yankee mind, our superstitions being mostly of a sterner and less poetical kind. The Irish Presbyterians who settled in New Hampshire about the year 1720 brought indeed with them, among other strange matters, potatoes and fairies; but while the former took root and flourished among us, the latter died out, after lingering a few years in a very melancholy and disconsolate way, looking regretfully back to their green turf dances, moonlight revels, and cheerful nestling around the shealing fires of Ireland.

But the age has fairly outgrown them, and they are falling away by a natural process of exfoliation. The wonderland of childhood must henceforth be sought within the domains of truth. The strange facts of natural history, and the sweet mysteries of flowers and forests, and hills and waters, will profitably take the place of the fairy lore of the past, and poetry and romance still hold their accustomed seats in the circle of home, without bringing with them the evil spirits of credulity and untruth.—*From Whittier's Prose Works.**

APRIL AWAKENING.

THE lover of Nature will feast on the peculiar dainties which the gracious days of April are offering. One cannot afford to miss her flowers, her odors, and her sounds, for there is in these something delightfully fresh and tender and delicate, that cannot be enjoyed at other seasons of the year.

The hasty, almost premature work of trimming the bare branches of the early trees and shrubs with flower tassels, plumes, and clusters, is curious.

What brilliant crimson knots appear on the young swamp maples! How pretty the catkins are! The poplars have thrown out a profusion of plush necklaces. The hazel bush, viewed against the sun, "snatches a grace beyond the reach of art."

Long before the bough trinkets have disappeared, the concerts have begun in the lowlands. What a pure, delicate sound is that which comes from the reeking mire! It is the signal trumpet for the frog band to awake and tune their in-

struments for the spring jubilee. As evening approaches they are marshaled along the shores of the pond and in the shallow places to hear the call of their leader. At first a few faint whistles are sounded, in perfect measure, then the nearest members chime in and play a brief overture—a kind of aquatic ditty, before the real opera begins. A small glee club in front of their water grass music racks, sing an Easter carol. Soon the band strikes up in good earnest. The waters are fairly alive with chirps and trills, flute and fife notes that are as musical as those of the robin who has caught the spirit of the occasion in yonder maple.

By the pond one is interested in watching the movements of the numerous aquatic creatures. A gentle stamp will cause, as if by electric touch, hundreds of small circular ripples over the surface. These are produced by the water boatmen and beetles that skurry quickly to the bottom. The shells of fresh water bivalves scattered along the shore are also objects of interest. How fragile they are compared with those of the seashore or the salt-river bottoms!

The muskrats who have burrows in the banks evidently indulged in a clam supper last night, as a change of diet. But few of the shells are broken and lie unhinged, with the rounded sides down, showing the delicate bluish-white lining and the beautiful iridescent hues. The platters have been licked very clean, and the question is suggested, how have these rodents with no special tools for the purpose, managed to open the tightly closed valves so neatly? It appears that the remarkable intelligence of the creatures directed them to place these mollusks on the dry banks and wait till the valves begin to yawn for their native beds, when the acute furry fishers pull them further apart with their claws and devour the contents.

The earliest of the arum spathes advertise themselves to the wild bees: "Our doors are open to-day to all who want bread, and it can be had by calling on us early." The wise insects read this in the air, as they peep from their winter lodges and rub their antennae. So the pollen gatherers lend humming wings to swell the April melody.

That low slender sedge (*carex Pennsylvanica*) in company with the early rock saxifrage, is now in full bloom on the dry, wooded hillsides. The hairlike stems and leaves of this species would be quite inconspicuous were it not for the sudden appearance of those large yellow anthers, which are in such striking contrast to the brown-purple spikes.

How different is the growth and fructification of the common "horsetails," growing in the

* Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

sandy soil, by the stone wall, farther down the hill! Hundreds of pale, succulent fruiting stems of these curious plants are springing up from the grass like sprouts from the potato pen. They have been lifted from the ground very quickly by the genial sun. No sign of them was visible a week ago, and in a few days they will disappear as suddenly as they came. Though not brilliant in color, they readily attract attention by their odd appearance, and are interesting to consider.

By the streams and lowlands the bird vanguard instinctively halt to bathe and obtain a greater supply of larval and seed food. A flock of fox sparrows alight in the wooded swamp. They appear this year in the rôle of April singers. They perch on the low boughs and herald their good fortune with sweet toned bugles. Their instruments are louder than those of the song sparrows, yet their chant is much the same. Indeed there appears to be a similarity of chirp and twitter in all species of these plainly dressed birds. The trim, clean-cut figure of a pigeon hawk gracefully sailing toward a tall beech near where I am sitting, readily attracts my attention. How easily he lifts himself on his pliant wings and settles down on a branch, as if he were only a bunch of feathers lodged there by the breeze. After fixing his long pinions carefully over his back he casts quick, wistful glances down to the stream as though he longed to play a good talon and beak on a plump frog or mouse. But he sees only game too large for him, with which he dare not "enter the list," and soon hustles off toward the oak woods, the next station on his air line, where refreshments are likely to be procured.

April has no fresher or more invigorating sounds than the clear, ringing laughter of the northward flying wild geese. It is the tonic or keynote which generates, as it were, the music of the month's jubilee. How heartily and exultantly the trumpet notes are thrown down to us as the winged trains go sweeping by! Our eyes and ears are now on the alert, and we would have the latest news from the South by the air line.

Hark! did we hear a faint mellow *honk* from somewhere out of the southern sky? Yes, the arrow-headed, elevated express is surely approaching. That peculiar baritone call from the engineer ahead, and the response from the tenor voices in the rear are unmistakable. Straight on they come, as if by an aerial track, a laughing, vociferous troop of passengers indeed.

So April's melody, the sweet prelude to the concert of the year, is heard. The constant sun is the performer. With his magic rays he

touches deftly the minor keys from which issue tones to which the human ear cannot respond. The ephemerae dance, the sap flows through millions of stems, and the earliest leaves and petals unfold at last, that the "fickle month" may be adorned to welcome the arrival of her merry sister May.—*From Horace Lunt's "Short Cuts and By-Paths."**

POINTED SAYINGS OF AMERICAN AUTHORS.

If you would not be known to do anything, never do it.—*R. W. Emerson.*

How sweet and gracious even in common speech, Is that fine sense which men call courtesy!

—*James T. Fields.*

She doeth little kindnesses
Which most leave undone or despise,
For naught that sets one's heart at ease
Or giveth happiness or peace
Is low-esteemed in her eyes.

—*J. R. Lowell.*

Resolved, never to do anything, which, if I should see in another, I should count a just occasion to despise him for, or to think any way more meanly of him.—*Jonathan Edwards.*

Be firm; one constant element in luck
Is genuine, solid old Teutonic pluck.

—*O. W. Holmes.*

There is no sound basis of power but honesty.
—*J. G. Holland.*

If we work upon marble, it will perish; if we work upon brass, time will efface it; if we rear temples, they will crumble into dust; but if we work upon immortal minds, if we imbue them with right principles, with the just fear of God and love of our fellow-men, we engrave on those tablets something which will brighten to all eternity.—*Daniel Webster.*

God asks no man whether he will accept life. That is not the choice. You must take it. The only choice is how.—*H. W. Beecher.*

We can make it a Christian duty, not only to love, but to be loving—not only to be true friends, but to show ourselves friendly.—*H. B. Stowe.*

If you've tried and have not won,
Never stop for crying;
All that's good and great is done
Just by patient trying.

—*Phæbe Cary.*

Pride is as loud a beggar as Want, and a great deal more saucy.—*Franklin.*

*Boston: D. Lothrop Company.

In a sense, what a man wants he can have.
The desire of his soul is the prophecy of his
fate.—*O. W. Holmes, Jr.*

Do not look for wrong and evil,
You will find them if you do ;
As you measure for your neighbor,
He will measure back for you.

—*Alice Cary.*

Stainless worth,
Such as the sternest age of virtue saw,
Ripens, meanwhile, till time shall call it forth,
From the low modest shade, to light and bless
the earth.

—*W. C. Bryant.*

Work for some good, be it ever so slowly.
Cherish some flower, be it ever so lowly.
Labor ! all labor is noble and holy ;
Let thy great deeds be thy prayer to thy God.

—*F. S. Osgood.*

Speak out in acts ; the time for words has
passed, and deeds alone remain.—*J. G. Whittier.*

No action, whether foul or fair,
Is ever done, but it leaves somewhere
A record written by fingers ghostly,
As a blessing or a curse ; but mostly,
In the greater weakness or greater strength
Of the acts which follow it, till at length,
The wrongs of ages are redressed,
And the justice of God made manifest.

—*H. W. Longfellow.*

WIT AND HUMOR.

WIT was originally a general name for all the intellectual powers, meaning the faculty which *kens*, perceives, knows, understands ; it was gradually narrowed in its signification to express merely the resemblance between ideas, and, lastly, to note that resemblance when it occasioned ludicrous surprise. It marries ideas lying wide apart, by a sudden jerk of the understanding. Humor originally meant moisture, a signification it metaphorically retains, for it is the very juice of the mind, oozing from the brain, and enriching and fertilizing wherever it falls. Wit exists by antipathy ; humor, by sympathy. Wit laughs *at* things ; humor laughs *with* them. Wit lashes external appearances, or cunningly exaggerates single foibles into character ; humor glides into the heart of its object, looks lovingly on the infirmities it detects, and represents the whole man. Wit is abrupt, darting, scornful, and tosses its analogies in your face ; humor is slow and shy, insinuating its fun into your heart. Wit is negative, analytical, destructive ; humor is creative. The couplets of Pope are witty, but Sancho Panza is a humorous creature.

Wit, when earnest, has the earnestness of passion, seeking to destroy ; humor has the earnestness of affection, and would lift up what is seemingly low into our charity and love. Wit, bright, rapid, and blasting as the lightning flashes, strikes, and vanishes in an instant ; humor, warm and all-embracing as the sunshine, bathes its objects in a genial and abiding light. Wit implies hatred or contempt of folly and crime, produces its effects by brisk shocks of surprise, uses the whip of scorpions and the branding-iron, stabs, stings, pinches ; tortures, goads, teases, corrodes, undermines ; humor implies a true conception of the beautiful, the majestic, and the true, by whose light it surveys and shapes their opposites.

Old Dr. Fuller's remark that a negro is "the image of God cut in ebony" is humorous. Horace Smith's inversion of it, that the taskmaster is "the image of the devil cut in ivory," is witty. Wit can coexist with fierce and malignant passions ; but humor demands good feeling and fellow feeling,—feeling not merely for what is above us, but for what is around and beneath us.—*Edwin P. Whipple.*

TERJE VIGEN.

TERJE VIGEN is a Norwegian sailor, who after a more or less wild and wandering life marries, and finds the constraints of a settled life converted into the supremest happiness when a little daughter laughs up at him from the cradle. But the wars of the early part of this century reduce his Norwegian village to direst distress. The British fleet cuts off all supplies from without, and the harvest fails at home. Terje takes the desperate resolve to row over to Denmark in an open boat to get food for his wife and child. As he returns, and is close at home, he is sighted by an English man-of-war and pursued by a boat with fifteen men. He rows till the blood bursts from his finger nails, to clear a rock two feet below the water on which the heavier boat of his pursuers may strike, but just as he is clearing it the English come up, and the young officer raises an oar and strikes a hole in Terje's boat. His three precious casks of barley are lost and he is taken prisoner, to the immense delight of the young officer who laughs at his outlandish attempts to plead for his liberty and the life of his dear ones, and carries him off in triumph to the man-of-war.

It is years before the peace puts an end to Terje's captivity, and when he returns home it is to hear that "when her husband deserted her," the woman died and so did her child ; and they had a pauper burial.

Thenceforth Terje, gray-headed with the anguish he has suffered, and with his neck bent as in shame, is the most daring and skillful of pilots; and on a certain stormy night he is summoned to the aid of a distressed English yacht. He is just bringing her off when he sees "my lord" with "my lady" and their beautiful child. Then he lets the yacht go, declares that she will not obey the helm, thrusts the three with himself into a boat, rows them into quieter waters, then stands erect, seizes an oar, strikes a hole in the bottom of the boat, and they are all standing in two feet of water far from the shore. Ibsen describes the scene as follows:

Then my lord cried out, "The rock gives way! It can be no rock at all." But the pilot smiled. "Nay, be sure of that! A sunken boat and three barley casks are the rock that bears us now." Then swept the memory of a half-forgotten deed like a lightning flash over the Englishman's face, as he knew the sailor that once knelt weeping on the deck of his corvette. Then Terje shouted aloud: "You held my all in your hand that day, and for glory you squandered it all. One moment more and revenge will have come."

It was then that the haughty Englishman bent his knee to the Norsk pilot. But Terje stood straight as in days of youth, as he steadied himself with the oar; through his eyes flamed out his untamed force, and his hair streamed out on the wind:

"You sailed at your ease, in your great corvette, and I rowed my little boat; I was toiling for dear ones, wearied to death, and you took their bread, and you thought so lightly of mocking my bitter tears. Your rich lady there

is as bright as spring, and her hand is as soft as silk; and my wife's hand it was coarse and hard, but she was my own, my wife. Your child has golden hair and blue eyes like a little guest of the Lord; and my daughter was nothing to look upon, for she—God help her—was sallow and lean as most poor folks' little ones are. But they were the sum of my earthly wealth, they were all that I called my own. They seemed such a mighty treasure to me, and with you so little they weighed. And now has the hour of recompense struck, for you shall go through such an hour as well may balance the whole long years that bowed my neck and that bleached my hair, and that ran my bliss aground."

Then he seized the child and he swung him free, and his left arm the lady clasped.

"Stand back, my lord. One step in advance will cost you your child and wife."

And the Briton was ready to spring to the fight, but his arm fell palsied and weak; his breath came burning, his eye drooped down, and his hair—as the dawning showed next day—turned gray in that single night. But on Terje's brow there was calmness and peace, and his breast was free and still, and in reverence laid he the baby down, and its hands he gently kissed. And he breathed as if loosed from a prison's vault, and his voice came steady and calm:

"Now is Terje Vigen himself again. Till now my blood flowed like a river stone-rent; for I must, I must be avenged. . . . But now it is over; we two are quits. Your debtor has played you fair. I gave what I could: you took all I had,—and now if you think you've been wronged by me, then make your complaint to the Lord above, for He made me the way I am."—From Philip H. Wicksteed's "*Lectures on Henrik Ibsen*."*

* New York: Macmillan & Co.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

History. THE latest work of James A. Froude, which is an exhaustive account of the divorce of Catharine of Aragon,* is based on materials never before accessible to historic research, and comprises a supplementary volume to his English history. In reading the volume it is difficult to remain free from the impression that the author has indulged in logical subtleties to veneer the inexcusable conduct of England's regal Bluebeard, until his own brain has become befuddled, and himself believes his own sophistry, especially when he insists: "The era of Elizabeth was the outspring of the movement which Henry VIII. commenced, and it was the grandest period in English history. Is it credible that so invigorating a stream flowed from a polluted fountain?" Such utterance introduces the author's views on Henry's divorce; that this pure "fountain" would not find it "un-

natural nor, under the circumstances, to be censured if he began to reflect upon the peculiar character of his connection with Catharine." This reflection was brought about by the fact, Catharine had no male child, and had been his brother's widow, contrary to Levitical law, and "not unnaturally," to Henry's sensitive views. An attempt is made to hold the councilors of Henry, religious and political, more responsible than himself for his deficiencies. Aside from maintaining Froude's inexplicable determination to whitewash the character of Henry VIII., the volume is valuable for its carefully sifted and collated historic matter, connected with the epoch considered.—A recent adaptation of "Ducoudray's History of Modern Civilization" presents in condensed form the leading events connecting his "History of Ancient Civilization" published a year ago, with the present time. The volume necessarily deals with a va-

*The Divorce of Catharine of Aragon. The Story as told by The Imperial Ambassadors at the Court of Henry VIII. By J. A. Froude. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, \$2.50.

*The History of Modern Civilization. A Handbook based upon M. G. Ducoudray's *Histoire Sommaire de la Civilisation*. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

riety of topics so extensive as not to admit even of a list of them being given. Prominence is given, however, to the part played by Christianity in the advance of civilization, to a degree not usually found in secular works. In the panorama of events, Greek and Roman give way to Goth, Vandal, and Frank, all to be united in resisting the Moslem hosts who threaten the world. The dismemberment of Charlemagne's empire is followed by the rise of feudalism with its interesting features, to yield in turn to the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the brilliant developments of modern times. The volume though designed for the young will be found a valuable reference or text for all.—An enticing volume which holds the reader irresistibly is that of G. Maspéro on "Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria."* The work is in the happiest style of an Egyptologist who ranks second to none living. Themes of the greatest variety relating to ancient modes, usages, and peculiarities are described in the present tense, the effect being to rehabilitate with all the animation of life, peoples of vanished ages. The author describes Thebes, its markets and shops, Pharaoh or Ramesses II., army recruitment, castle life, illness and death, the origin and cause of mummifying corpses, and many topics no less interesting relating to Assyrian life. The book abounds in illustrations.—A second volume is now added to the work of Stephens on the much written French Revolution.† The volume covers the time from the Legislative Assembly of 1790 to the end of 1793, and discourses at random of the convulsive events included in that exciting period. The author succeeds in collecting and arranging from the jumbled mass of increasing material relating to France's civil upheaval, a succinct narrative of systematic though intricate pattern. The work boasts of little embellishment except as effected by literal accounts of tragic occurrences; it includes, however, some features forming a part of no previous work, such as the list of the deputies sent on mission in 1794, procured from archives at Paris.—The same author has added "The Story of Portugal"‡ to the Story of the Nations Series, this one being the first history of that country, written in English. The volume differs from most of the easily told "stories" of the series, being a plain condensation of historic facts without any at-

tempt at effect, even where the reader would naturally prefer some tinting, as in the case of the stirring life of Alfonso Henriquez, who won Portuguese independence in the romantic "Tourney of Valdevez." If lacking in enthusiasm the author writes appreciatively of Portuguese heroes, whose lives epitomize that of their nation. Good print, illustrations, and map maintain the standard finish of the series.—An excellent little volume for youthful students of history is the translation by Frances Younghusband of Prof. C. Witt's "Retreat of the Ten Thousand."* The original of Prof. Witt's work is the *Anabasis*, itself one of the most delightfully simple and graphic books in the world. Miss Younghusband has made a very creditable rendering in which there is not a prosy or stupid line, at once clear and comprehensive. From the luxury of the vast empire of Darius I. to the detailed deeds of the army of Xenophon the description is engrossing. An abundance of illustrations borrowed from Perrot, Chipiez, and the British Museum, are happily selected.—For a concise and spirited account of the Battle of Gettysburg,† the climax among the frightful contests of the late war, the student may be referred to the little history of that struggle by S. A. Drake. A vivid description of the locality and its strategic importance precedes an account of Lee's bold design which precipitated the three days' slaughter. One conclusion of the author is that while Gettysburg was the greatest conflict of the war, it was not decisive in any sense and amounted to a "mere pounding match" after which the two leaders compared bruises and prepared to fight again.—"The Story of New Mexico,"‡ a region conspicuous for its wealth and variety of those materials which lend interest and life to a narrative, has found a relater in H. O. Ladd, engaged during the past ten years in planting schools through that territory. Following a chapter devoted to New Mexican antiquity which is illustrated by mounds and their contents, the subject is classified under several heads including Spanish Discoveries, Colonization, Rebellion and Spanish Rule, New Mexico under the Mexican Confederation, 1821-1846, followed by American occupation and rule. The recital teems with the adventures, toils, and sufferings incident to the struggles between reds and whites, and is well illustrated.—A fresh attempt to reconcile the conflicting chronologies

* Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria. From the French of G. Maspéro. New York: D. Appleton & Company.

† A History of the French Revolution. By H. Morse Stephens. In three volumes. Vol. II. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, \$2.50.

‡ The Story of Portugal. By H. Morse Stephens. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Price, \$1.50.

* The Retreat of the Ten Thousand. By Prof. C. Witt. Translated from the German by Frances Younghusband. London and New York: Longmans, Greene & Co.

† The Battle of Gettysburg. By Samuel A. Drake. Boston: Lee and Shepard. Price, 50 cts.

‡ The Story of New Mexico. By Horatio O. Ladd. Boston: D. Lothrop Company. Price, \$1.50.

of ancient history,* particularly Egyptian and Jewish has been made by Malcolm Macdonald. Admitting that ancient chronology is to some extent a speculative subject, that we can do without accurate knowledge of every chronological event, provided that here and there the reigns of certain kings can be fixed, the author maintains the intention of fixing certainly the reigns of Thutmes III., Rameses II., and of Takelath II. in Egyptian history and alters the time of some leading events in Jewish history. His method which is very painstaking is that of verifying the time of astronomical phenomena which are recorded upon monuments, upon which he bases historic tabulations. The work is of chief value to antiquarians.

Science.

A collection of lectures and discourses by Professor Tyndall appears in book form under the title "New Fragments."† Mingling history, biography, philosophy, and theology in its pages, it is yet chiefly scientific in its trend of thought. The different articles while presenting much of attractiveness and grandeur to the imagination, at the same time give out many problems provocative of independent thought on the part of the reader.—A delightful book about science giving fine descriptions and good general views without entering deeply into technicalities is Geikie's "Geological Sketches."‡ It is well fitted to awaken in all readers—especially in younger ones—a desire to know more about the wonders so graphically described, and to lead to a genuine love of the science for its own sake.—A very clear and accurate geological history of the Western Continent is given by Professor Shaler in his book, "Nature and Man in America."§ He traces carefully the developments from age to age and also the physical conditions attending them. The interest centers in his arguments showing how the Americas, in common with Africa and Australia, were "unfitted to be the cradle-places of great peoples"; the races indigenous to them never rose above barbarism. But the continent, once firmly established, possessed peculiar advantages for becoming the home of civilized foreigners.—The same author has done a good work for school children in preparing for their

use an admirable geological history of the country.*—Very far into the abstruse domain of sciences must one venture who seeks for the cause of the ice age; and very intricate is his task when he seeks to give directions for others to follow after him over the labyrinthine paths. But this is just what Sir Robert Ball has most satisfactorily done in a recent work.† Giving clear reasons for abandoning as fruitless his search in the realms of geology, he seeks and finds in the regions of astronomy evidences which warrant him in adhering so strongly to the theory which locates there the cause of this puzzling phenomena of an ice age. His manner both of research and reasoning is original and inviting.—In the same Modern Science Series to which the preceding book belongs there is one giving an elaborate study of the horse.‡ It ascertains the place of the horse in natural history, traces its nearest existing relatives, and from a close study of its structure discloses the proofs of its evolution from a remote ancestry of greatly different appearance from itself. It is written in a style suited for general use and is a very readable book.—A recent book about birds written by a genuine bird lover for boys and girls and full at once of practical teachings and most enjoyable reading is "Bird-dom."§

Religion.

Two other useful books for the same set of workers are, "The Epworth League,"¶ and "Studies in the Church History and Doctrines."‡ Both should be used by members of the League as text-books. The plain instructions will lighten labor and the inspiring words will quicken to greater efforts.—Notes on the Sunday School Lessons of 1892** furnish to teachers a wealth of information which they cannot afford to do without. Supplemented by word illustrations, maps, and pictures, they leave untouched no phase of the work concerning which help is needed.—"Talks to Sunday School Teachers"†† is a carefully prepared book

* The Story of our Continent. By N. S. Shaler. Boston: Ginn & Company.

† The Cause of an Ice Age. By Sir Robert Ball, LL.D., F. R. S. ‡ The Horse. By William Henry Fowler, C. B., LL.D. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

§ Bird-dom. By Leander S. Keyser. Boston: D. Lothrop Company. Price, \$1.00.

¶ The Epworth League. By the Rev. J. B. Robinson, D.D., Ph.D. Price, 40 cents. ‡ Studies in Bible and Church History and Doctrines. By the Rev. L. F. Young. Price, 30 cts. ** Illustrative Notes on the Sunday School Lessons for 1892. By Jesse L. Hurlbut, D.D., and Robert R. Doherty, Ph.D. New York: Hunt & Raton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe. Price, \$1.25.

†† Talks to Sunday School Teachers. By Joseph Goodwin Terrill. Syracuse, N. Y.: A. W. Hall. Price, 75 cts.

* Harmony of Ancient History, and Chronology of the Egyptians and Jews. By Malcolm Macdonald. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. Price, \$2.00.

† New Fragments. By John Tyndall, F. R. S. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

‡ Geological Sketches. By Archibald Geikie, LL.D., F. R. S. New York: Macmillan & Co. Price, \$1.50.

§ Nature and Man in America. By N. S. Shaler. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, \$1.50.

of practical instruction designed to help teachers. Advanced methods of teaching are explained and plain directions given for management and instruction.—Bible students will find of practical service the *People's Commentary on the Gospel of St. John*.^{*} It is a scholarly work presented in a popular manner.—Dr. Guthrie, the famous Scotch divine, made an indelible impress upon the history of his time by his philanthropic works and words.[†] His numerous well-known publications breathe forth the living spirit of Christianity. A complete uniform edition of his works composed mostly of sermons is now being issued, in substantial bindings, good paper, and clean type. The three volumes before us will form a handsome addition to any library.—The book bearing the title "*Jesus the Carpenter of Nazareth*,"[‡] retells the story of the life of Christ in sweet and simple manner for children. Unbiased by any desire to instill into young minds doctrinal or sectarian thoughts it simply presents a series of charming word pictures. The consecrated spirit of the book must influence all its readers for good.—"*The Sabbath in Puritan New England*"[§] contains a full history and description of all things pertaining to the outward observance of Sunday in the early history of this country. A few of the titles of the chapters selected at random, will give an idea of its scope: "*The Old-Fashioned Pews*," "*The Tithing-Man and the Sleepers*," "*The Noon-House*," "*The Bay Psalm-Book*." A spicy style of writing and a vision clear to perceive the underlying meaning in the stiff, hard observances of the day lend at once charm and worth to the book.

Travel.

A translation in two volumes by Charles G. Leland of Heine's "*Pictures of Travel*,"[¶] affords a reader confined to the English an opportunity of enjoying the beauties and weaknesses of that gifted writer. The pictures ever present the delicate shades of gayety and somberness that mark the poetic genius. Often a tracery full of sadness is touched with a sudden dash changing the picture to sunshine and mirth. In these pictures from Hartz

Mountains, North Sea, soft-skied Italy, and green England, the defects which go to make up Heine's universality of character are not wanting.—The book entitled "*A Winter in India and Malaysia among the Methodist Missions*"^{*} is well worth perusal. It is full of information, while not forbiddingly instructive. It clearly is the work of one who while looking out for the salvation of souls, is at the same time able to see the attractive features as well as those otherwise, which environ these souls.—"*Through Abyssinia*"[†] is the somewhat prosily told narrative of an envoy sent by the Queen to carry the "*Sword of Honor*" to King John. The recital carries the reader from London to Cairo, thence by way of Suez, Suakin, and Massowah to the "*King of Zion*," its slight tediousness being relieved by the style, which is that of a journal, and by excellent print and illustrations.—The timely subject of the Chinese,[‡] their present and future: medical, social, and political is treated by Robert Coltman, a physician of wide experience among hospitals of Northern China. The volume is written in a simple and straightforward style with the charm of naturalness. Customs peculiar to the people are described, those relating to home life, rules for women, banquets, marriage, social evil, and many others sustaining the interest throughout the book, which is well illustrated.

Biography and Fiction.

Those interested in the life of a talented girl in whom beauty and grace were qualities of mind as well as of body, and whose brilliancy was not lost in the greater light of her husband's genius, will read the history of Jane Welsh Carlyle.^{||} The many notable persons with whom she was associated furnish topics for interesting references and her aims, feelings, and existence all so react from or center in those of her husband, that his life also is delineated. The greatness of character, the almost unlimited power to suffer and resist, and the perversity of fate united in this woman to leave a lasting impression which perhaps the development of her genius to the full limit which her time would have allowed

^{*} *People's Commentary on John*. By Edwin W. Rice, D.D. With Maps and Engravings. Philadelphia: The American Sunday School Union. Price, \$1.25.

[†] *Man and the Gospel.—Inheritance of the Saints.—Studies of Character*. By Thomas Guthrie, D.D. New York: E. B. Treat. Price per vol., \$1.00.

[‡] *Jesus the Carpenter of Nazareth*. By A. Layman. Price, \$1.50. [§] *The Sabbath in Puritan New England*. By Alice Morse Earle. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, \$1.25.

[¶] *Pictures of Travel*. By Heinrich Heine. In two volumes. New York: John W. Lovell Company.

^{*} *A Winter in India and Malaysia among the Methodist Missions*. By Rev. M. V. B. Knox, Ph.D., D.D. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe. Price, \$1.20.

[†] *Through Abyssinia. An Envoy's Ride to the King of Zion*. By F. Harrison Smith, R.N. New York: A. C. Armstrong Son.

[‡] *The Chinese: Their Present and Future: Medical, Political, and Social*. By Robert Coltman, Jr., M.D. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis. Price, \$1.75.

^{||} *Life of Jane Welsh Carlyle*. By Mrs. Alexander Ireland. New York: Charles L. Webster & Company.

her, would not have done. The large volume is pithy and well written, with an exhaustive summary and complete index.—A book dainty and beautiful in proportion to its size contains sketches of Miss Frances E. Willard and her "life of service"* for the good of woman.—"Around Bronton"† is a pre-eminently religious novel of which the religion is by far the best part. This is sound and commends itself at once to the reader, being well introduced and impressive. The plot is interesting but most of the scenes and situations are badly presented, weak, and seem to have been finished off before

* *A Life of Service.* Chicago: The Woman's Temperance Publishing Association.

† *Around Bronton.* By Mrs. Mary R. Baldwin. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe. Price, \$1.00.

fairly conceived. The pen must have been dipped in vitriol to depict the feminine characters, as several of them appear with scars where there should be womanly attributes. Above all it is repulsive to find a mother who has been denuded of the redeeming dignity of being a mother-in-law, represented as a Gorgon. One wishes for the power to skip around like a chamois over the places which vary in style from the indifferent to the cringing.—"The Story of Reine,"* a translation from the French, is marked by its very enjoyable extreme silliness. It is light and dancing, and sometimes dances into the mud of French immorality. The diminutive heroine aged sixteen years, is very popular and very saucy.

* *The Story of Reine.* By Jean de la Brète. Boston: Roberts Brothers. Price, \$1.00.

SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT NEWS FOR FEBRUARY, 1892.

HOME NEWS.—February 1. The constitutionality of the Anti-Lottery law affirmed.

February 2. Burning of the Appomattox Court House building, Virginia, with all the valuable records.

February 5. The president by proclamation publicly announces reciprocity arrangements with the British West Indies.

February 6. Postmaster-General Wanamaker issues an order increasing the number of money order offices.

February 12. The anniversary of Lincoln's birthday celebrated in many cities.

February 13. Andrew Carnegie gives an additional \$100,000 for the free library in Pittsburgh.—The most brilliant aurora borealis seen in many years causes trouble to telegraph and printing offices.

February 14. Claims of the *Baltimore's* sailors amounting to \$1,305,000 against Chili mailed to the State Department from San Francisco.—Dr. C. H. Parkhurst of New York delivers a scathing sermon denouncing city officials who fail to execute the laws.

February 15. Conclusion of the Canadian reciprocity negotiations at Washington.

February 19. The Albany Assembly vote in favor of closing the New York State Building at the World's Fair on Sundays.—Many members of both houses of Congress visit Chicago to view the work on the World's Fair.

February 22. A large number of destitute negroes from the west arrive in New York, deluded by promises of transportation to Liberia.

February 24. Adjournment of the St. Louis

Convention after adopting a platform leaving out woman suffrage and prohibition.

February 25. Omaha selected by the joint committee of the People's party and "Reform" organizations of St. Louis as the place for holding a national convention July 4.

February 27. Strikers prevent the running of street cars in Indianapolis.

FOREIGN NEWS.—February 1. The North German Lloyd Steamer *Eider* wrecked on Atherfield Ledge, Isle of Wight.—The new French Tariff law goes into effect.

February 3. Death of Sir Morell Mackenzie.

February 6. Emperor William urges large German manufacturers to send exhibits to the World's Fair.

February 10. Great Britain and the United States agree upon France, Italy, and Sweden as Bering Sea arbitrators.

February 12. General Booth welcomed by the Salvation Army, on his return to England from Australia and India.

February 13. Vigorous protests against the Sectarian Education Bill, throughout Prussia.

February 15. Civil war raging in Khartoom.

February 16. Traffic seriously impeded by severe snowstorms throughout the United Kingdom and France.

February 18. Resignation of the French ministry.

February 26. Trouble in Berlin between unemployed workmen and the police.

February 27. New cabinet organized in France.

C. L. S. C. GRADUATES—CLASS OF '91.

THE Alumni of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle were increased last year by 3,459 graduates. The total number graduated from the C. L. S. C. is made by this class 29,030. The present class is distributed as follows: Alabama, 11; Arizona, 2; Arkansas, 6; California, 84; Colorado, 47; Connecticut, 65; Delaware, 8; Dist. Columbia, 16; Florida, 7; Georgia, 5; Idaho, 2; Illinois, 283; Indiana, 123; Indian Territory, 2; Iowa, 130; Kansas, 107; Kentucky, 40; Louisiana, 11; Maine, 130; Maryland, 23; Massachusetts, 211; Michigan, 176; Minnesota, 53; Mississippi, 14; Missouri, 103; Montana, 6; Nebraska, 54; Nevada, 4; New Hampshire, 104; New Jersey, 100; New Mexico, 3; New York, 325; N. Carolina, 3; N. Dakota, 4; Ohio, 324; Oklahoma Territory, 1; Oregon, 15; Pennsylvania, 289; Rhode Island, 34; S. Carolina, 12; S. Dakota, 28; Tennessee, 10; Texas, 27; Utah, 4; Vermont, 51; Virginia, 8; Washington, 11; West Virginia, 22; Wisconsin, 95; Canada, 46; Great Britain, 10; Foreign, 8.

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 Tiffany, Mrs. Myra
 Townsley, Ada May
 Tranter, Mrs. Edith R.
 Triboulet, Madge C.
 Tuttle, Mrs. Sarah E.
 Tyson, Jim H.
 Van Valkenburgh, Minerva
 Vose, Mary
 Weddworth, Mrs. Emily W.
 Walker, Elizabeth
 Walker, Etta May
 Warfel, Edith
 Warren, Henry Vallette
 Warren, Mrs. L. K.
 Warren, Lottie M.
 Watson, Robert L.
 Weaver, Mattie
 Weir, H. Angie
 Weiser, Mrs. Maria H.
 Wescott, Mrs. Mary A.
 West, Mrs. W. M.
 Wetenhall, Mrs. Elizabeth A.
 Wheeler, Dora
 Wheeler, Harriet L.
 Wheeler, S. W.
 White, Lella M.
 Whitford, Susie E.
 Wilcox, H. M.
 Williams, Ellen E.
 Williams, Jane E.
 Wilson, Bessie A.
 Wilson, Jessie F.
 Wright, Mrs. Sarah J.

INDIANA

Adams, Vesta
 Ainalie, Mrs. Kate H.
 Axford, Mrs. L. C.
 Bacon, C. E.
 Bacon, Nellie C.
 Bacon, Mrs. N. V.
 Baldwin, Mrs. Mattie
 Barbour, Mrs. J. W.
 Beidler, Mrs. Frank N.
 Brannon, George Dwight
 Brewster, Edith M.
 Brunton, Josie Lewis
 Carmien, Mrs. J. A.
 Carnahan, Mrs. A. M. B.
 Carr, Mattie B.
 Case, Mrs. Mary K.
 Clark, Cordelia J.
 Clifton, Jennie B.
 Crakes, Thomas
 Cunningham, Mrs. S. E. M.
 Curtis, Lucretia B.
 Darrby, Linda Marie
 Darr, David Leroy
 Darr, Mrs. Helen Theresa
 Decker, Emma Ottilie
 Decker, Mrs. Helen P.
 Dilla, Dan
 Dougherty, Mrs. M. R.
 Eysestone, Mabel Deline
 Finney, Caroline E.
 Finney, Kate
 Fougères, Susan G.
 Freeman, Flora M.
 Gary, Hattie M.
 Gorrell, Edna Estella
 Graham, Ellen Elizabeth
 Green, Florence J.
 Guthrie, Mrs. Fannie A.
 Harwood, Samuel E.
 Heilmann, Lura Fellows
 Henry, Mrs. J. C.
 Hinkle, Mrs. W. B.
 Hognire, Anna
 Horne, Lora
 Iwin, Nettie
 Johnson, Charles D.
 Jones, Louise S.
 Keller, Helen J.
 Kennard, Mrs. Rebecca
 Lewis, Mattie
 Lewis, Mrs. W. J.
 Lindley, Mrs. H. M.
 Martin, Mrs. Mary M.
 McIntyre, Mrs. Helen L.
 McKane, Mrs. H. W.
 McMahan, Mrs. Irene A.
 McNeely, Elizabeth Marah
 McNeely, John B.
 McQuiston, Malvina R.
 Mergy, Mrs. Margaret
 Milam, Mrs. Alice E.
 Milam, Elissa B.
 Moody, Mrs. Clara F.
 Moore, Mrs. W. R.
 Morris, Augusta W.
 Morrison, Mrs. W. H.
 Moss, Mrs. Anna R.
 Myers, Rachel E.
 Nichols, Mrs. Adda L.
 Nicholson, Mrs. Clara H.
 Niedhammer, Sibyl A.
 Nixon, Mrs. Alice
 Noel, Elizabeth B.
 Overlin, Mrs. Emma
 Parker, Minnie Myrtle
 Peck, Gertrude M.
 Penfield, Luna W.
 Pennington, William H.
 Pennington, Mrs. W. H.
 Piel, Ellen L.
 Polk, Mrs. Arrie Freeland
 Presnall, Francis M.
 Presnall, Mattie J.
 Price, Mrs. L. Kemper
 Futerbaugh, Carrie C.
 Futerbaugh, Moses
 Kant, Mrs. Lizzie
 Rawlings, Carrie
 Ray, Nan A.
 Rich, Elma
 Rinn, Ruth
 Robinette, Sara J.
 Ross, Mrs. C. G.
 Rowland, M. D., George
 Rowland, Mrs. Mary A.
 RuTon, Mrs. Annie Louise
 RuTon, Louise
 Schaab, Mrs. Charles
 Smith, Mrs. J. E.
 Streeter, Mrs. G. R.
 Szeszy, Mrs. Cornelia C.
 Switzer, Mrs. Esther S.
 Thompson, Mrs. May F.
 Thornburgh, Ada W.
 Torrance, Clara
 Trimble, Anna L.
 VanAtta, Melville Taylor
 Vilmer, Mrs. L. W.
 Ward, Alice C.
 Ward, Cora
 Ward, Mertie E.

Ward, Wilbert
 Waterman, Mrs. Florence E.
 Watson, Mrs. Lelia M.
 Webb, Miss Blanche
 Webb, Mrs. Margaret A.
 White, Adah Whinery
 Wilson, Mrs. Eliza C.
 Wilson, Mrs. H. D.
 Wood, Rose
 Woods, Mrs. Hanna D.
 Wright, Mrs. Mattie P.
 Young, E. W.
 Young, Kate F.
 Zook, Mrs. Aaron S.

INDIAN TERRITORY.

Noel, Benjamin
 Spraker, Miss Frances Ella

IOWA

Amos, Mrs. Josie G.
 Anderson, Mrs. Emma F.
 Bascom, Mrs. Mary P.
 Becker, Mrs. Bessie K.
 Bock, Agnes M.
 Bock, Helen E.
 Bowman, Miss Ella
 Bowman, Mrs. Lestina C.
 Bowman, Miss Martha L.
 Briggs, Berta B.
 Brindell, George W.
 Brown, Lela C. M.
 Bullis, Mrs. Annie E.
 Burke, Clara
 Burnham, Mrs. Mary A.
 Carhart, Amanda Brooks
 Carlton, Mrs. Susan F.
 Carlton, William W.
 Carter, Mrs. Elizabeth C.
 Clark, Alice
 Clark, Ira Percy
 Clark, Mrs. F. J.
 Coleman, Louis W.
 Coughtry, Mary H.
 Crane, Mrs. Florence A.
 Cullen, Bee
 Dailley, Mrs. Mary E.
 Dale, Lucius Christian
 Dalton, Mrs. Addie M.
 Denny, Eva G.
 Diven, Ella
 Diven, Kate
 Drake, Jennie E.
 Duncan M.D., Frank
 Dunham, Florence S.
 Early, Mrs. Harriet
 Englet, Mrs. Bertha May
 Evans, Hiram E.
 Everett, Mrs. Mary E.
 Fay, Mrs. Mattie L.
 Fellows, Lena L.
 Fitch, Laura
 Fitch, Mrs. Melissa W.
 Fort, Mrs. Emma G.
 Fulton, Alice
 Funk, Ada M.
 Funk, Henry U.
 Gregg, Mrs. Alice Neal
 Grove, Myra L. S.
 Harkness, James Edgar
 Hawley, Mrs. Helen M.
 Hayward, Mrs. Eva R.
 Hazard, Clara M.
 Hazard, Theodore L.
 Hennessey, Mrs. Kate A.
 Himebaugh, Mary E.
 Houston, Miss Ernestine
 Howell, Miss Annie
 Hunt, Eva L.
 Hutchinson, Clara C.
 Jay, Della Maud
 Jay, M. Berdona
 Johnson, William Thomas
 Jones, Mrs. Gertrude
 Keaton, Melissa C.
 Kelso, Lillian F.
 Kennedy, Mrs. F. H.
 LaForce, Melinda D.
 Laird, Mrs. Clara B.
 Lake, Mrs. C. E.
 Lake, Mrs. Ely L.
 Lowery, Jennie B.
 Luick, Alice Packard
 MacQuigg, Anna Altman
 Meira, Helen A.

Martin, Addie
 Martin, Sarah
 Matson, Isabella J.
 McGee, Mrs. Elizabeth
 McKee, Ida J.
 McKlveen, Kittie
 McMillan, Martha Hays
 Mereness, Addie
 Miles, Flora P.
 Mills, Susie A.
 Milner, Grace
 Mitchell, Mrs. Helen
 Mitchell, W. O.
 Mobley, Anna Bell
 Moore, Mrs. Nannie
 Neilson, Miss Lucy N.
 Otis, Mrs. Sophie A.
 Owen, Herbert H.
 Parker, Mary A.
 Parnell, Rose R.
 Parrish, Ellie S.
 Perine, Martha J.
 Potwin, Mrs. Ella A.
 Quackenbush, Mrs. E.
 Ross, Mrs. Mary K.
 Russell, Charles Melville
 Russell, Mrs. George E.
 Russell, Lillie R.
 Scott, Mrs. Martha A.
 Sexton, William J.
 Sheakley, Mrs. Nell E.
 Sheakley, Samuel H.
 Shepard, Mrs. F. S.
 Shepard, F. S.
 Sikes, Elmer
 Smith, Mrs. Saldee R. T.
 Snow, Mary Thayer
 Stearns, Kate
 Taylor, Linna A.
 Tomlinson, Jeannette E.
 VanArnum, Agnes E.
 VanArnum, Miss Hattie C.
 Warner, Ella
 Watson, Blanche E.
 Wells, Mrs. Lucina R.
 Welsh, Addie Ellyson
 White, Miss Anna
 Whitehead, Alice Ollitipa
 Wilcox, Alphonso Allen
 Willett, Laura A. M.
 Williams, Mrs. Lulu C.
 Winsor, Paula B.
 Wood, Myra A.
 Wyatt, Minnie May
 Wynn, Mrs. Julia Marian

KANSAS.

Adams, Mrs. L. R.
 Adams, Lucian R.
 Akers, Mrs. Eleanor
 Allen, Viola
 Anderson, Mrs. Belle
 Ashpole, A. J.
 Ashpole, Mrs. N. C.
 Blair, Jacob Kiehl
 Beeson, Sarah G.
 Bennett, Mary F.
 Beverly, Mrs. Ella M.
 Black, Mrs. Jessie H.
 Bleakley, Mrs. Alicia
 Bowen, Angie S.
 Bowen, Mrs. H. Millie
 Breck, Mrs. Elizabeth S.
 Buck, Mrs. J. Jay
 Campbell, M. B.
 Carnine, Mrs. R. A.
 Carnine, Robert Allen
 Clark, Carrie L.
 Clendenin, Miss Adelle
 Colman, Mrs. Flora K.
 Connelly, Clyde D.
 Crow, Amanda M.
 Crow, Sims M.
 Dewesse, Margaret
 Dunning, Marie
 Eberole, Mrs. Cora
 Ellithorpe, Miss Allie
 Ellithorpe, Effie Leverage
 Ellithorpe, Miss Zoia I.
 Ferrell, Mrs. Tarsy S.
 Flanders, Mina G.
 Casaway, Mrs. Wilda S.
 Gibson, Annie
 Glasscock, Lillie J.
 Grace, Fred
 Guernsey, Mrs. Lillie E.

Haller, Ada
 Haskett, Laura M.
 Hosp, Mrs. Ella Seward
 Jack, Dora M.
 Jones, James C.
 Jones, Mrs. J. C.
 Kindig, Flora Taylor
 King, Anna
 King, Mrs. V. M.
 Lanyon, Mrs. Lavon
 Leach, Miss Nellie K.
 Leech, Jennie E.
 Locke, Mrs. Mary M.
 Lord, Mrs. Anna B.
 Markham, Mrs. Sarah W.
 Marshall, Josephine T.
 Martin, Isabel M.
 McCully, Cora Anna
 McEwen, Charles Edward
 McKee, Jane E.
 McKinlay, Jeanie
 McLaughlin, Maud M.
 McMeen, Ida May
 McNaughton, Annie A.
 McNaughton, S. J.
 McQuilkin, Edith M.
 Miller, Mrs. J. C.
 Murdock, Louise Caldwell
 Murphy, Mrs. Eva Morley
 Oliver, Mrs. A. W.
 Orr, John D.
 Owen, Alice S.
 Pampel, Nellie E.
 Parsons, Mrs. Jessie C.
 Parsons, Mrs. Lorraine C.
 Pierce, Mrs. Lillian B.
 Pierce, Ruth A.
 Peters, Myra L.
 Pritchard, Fidelia O.
 Rapp, Mrs. Mary C. H.
 Read, Lena B.
 Reynolds, Alice Albertie
 Reynolds, Thomas Harvey
 Rice, Mrs. Lucy A.
 Richardson, May E.
 Rutter, Anna Laura
 Scott, Clara H.
 Sharon, Miss Mary A.
 Shields, Mrs. Myra Willits
 Stanton, Lucia E.
 Stanton, Lucy J.
 Stanton, Solon E.
 Stocks, Fred A.
 Stone, Frances E.
 Stout, Mrs. Isabella
 Strong, Carrie C.
 Topping, Mrs. Mary A.
 Tulane, Mrs. Ida W.
 Tulane, Victoria R.
 VanOrdoel, Benjamin F.
 Walker, Belle
 Walker, Mary W.
 Weston, Mrs. Mary B.
 Willong, Mrs. Augusta H.
 Williams, Mrs. Nellie C.
 Willoughby, Mrs. M. E. H.
 Wolf, Emma Adamson
 Zimmerman, Sophia

KENTUCKY

Baldwin, Mrs. A. R.
 Barnes, Miss Mamie I.
 Blakey, Mrs. Lucile
 Brown, Sallie
 Carden, Pearl
 Clark, Miss Missouri E. M.
 Compton, Jeannette
 Curd, Mrs. Ada B.
 Dibble, Laura E.
 Dubose, Fannie C.
 Eyle, Mrs. Minnie P.
 Edwards, Dell
 Goodloe, Mrs. W. O.
 Hagood, Mrs. Adalena D.
 Harrison, Ida Withers
 Johnston, Robert Edward
 Kinnaird, Mrs. Anna W.
 Kyle, Anna
 Lewis, Ada S.
 Lewis, Miss Kate P.
 Luce, Sarah Taylor
 McBride, Lida
 McElroy, Mrs. Clarence U.
 McElroy, George Whitfield
 McElroy, Lucy C.

McElroy, Minnie
 Mitchell, Mrs. B. J.
 Ogden, Guy H.
 Pickels, Minnie Parrish
 Pottinger, Samuel Forrest
 Quisenberry, Mrs. J. A.
 Quisenberry, Virginia
 Ramey, Lida
 Shelley, Georgiana D.
 Shelley, Schuyler G.
 Smith, Lucy C.
 Tice, Chauncey Olmstead
 Tully, Miss Annie
 Williamson, Miss Alpha J.
 Young, Mrs. Addie B.

LOUISIANA

Belden, Josephine Lillian
 Caruth, Mattie
 Coltharp, Mrs. William F.
 Farley, Miss Alice B.
 Fullilove, Kate
 Moore, Roberta F.
 Moore, Mrs. Sallie
 Ogilvie, Mrs. E. T.
 Rainey, Agnes K.
 Wasson, Miss Lizzie G.
 Young, Edward James

MAINE

Abbott, Mrs. Frank
 Babb, Adaline P.
 Babson, Emma Florence
 Bissell, Annie F.
 Bain, Mary
 Banton, William E.
 Barron, Miss Hattie S.
 Barrows, Carrie S.
 Bates, Le Roy
 Bean, Martha A.
 Bonney, Mrs. Nellie Sears
 Cabot, Fanny Jewett
 Caler, Ella M.
 Campbell, Evelyn Lyman
 Chadbourne, Amelia F.
 Chamberlain, Mrs. M. J.
 Chamberlain, Mrs. S. M.
 Chapman, Miss Ella M.
 Clapp, Annie C.
 Cloudman, Frank H.
 Cobb, Mrs. Elvira W.
 Cook, Leone R.
 Cousins, Edgar Millard
 Cox, Emeline Edith
 Crawford, Caroline Cass
 Cutler, Mrs. Rebecca D.
 Daggett, Fred L.
 Day, Mrs. Harriet L.
 Day, Mary E.
 Decker, Miss Alice A.
 DeGarmo, Margaret B.
 Deering, Mrs. Abby T.
 Dovey, Annie Lewis
 Dunn, Mrs. Lizzie F.
 Duntun, Margaret Amanda
 Duran, Julia Caroline
 Dutch, Mrs. Hannah A.
 Emery, Carrie L.
 Erskine, Clara Augusta
 Evans, Susan Spring
 Farrington, Katie E.
 Fisher, Rebekah J.
 Flint, John M.
 Garcon, Fred A.
 Garcelon, Mrs. Georgie R.
 Gleason, Miss Helen C.
 Gray, Ada A.
 Greene, Carrie L.
 Hall, Mrs. Lizzie E.
 Hanson, Abbie Lord
 Harding, Mrs. Delia C.
 Haskell, Alice M.
 Heal, Mrs. Clementine T.
 Hilt, Myra E.
 Holmes, Mrs. Emma A.
 House, Elwin L.
 House, Mrs. Sherlie G.
 Hussey, Alberta
 Hussey, Mrs. Lizzie M.
 Hussey, Sadie L.
 Jacobs, Abbie Louise
 Jewett, Mrs. Kate L.
 Jordan, Mary L.
 Kaler, Mrs. Lizzie M.
 Keene, Mrs. Lizzie H. C.

Lane, Benjamin J.
Lymburner, Mary
Mace, Winifred L.
Mansfield, Nellie Frances
Mansfield, Chas. Edwin
Manter, Melville West
McIntire, Cora Ella
McIntire, Lillie Rita
McNee, Almira D.
Moore, Mrs. Clara Josie
Moore, Mrs. Emily Q.
Morse, Mrs. Annie Jaques
Moulton, Mrs. D. P.
Newbury, Mrs. Priscilla C.
Noyes, Henry Wallace
Noyes, Lucy A.
Nutting, Isabelle M.
Payson, Dora Maud
Peck, Mrs. Nellie L.
Perley, Elizabeth Brettun
Pinkham, Howard C.
Pollard, Mary Eliza
Pottle, Emma Elizabeth
Rice, Mrs. Patience M.
Richards, Fred M.
Richards, Mrs. Viola D.
Ricker, Mabel Frances
Ricker, Sarah Little
Robbins, Miss Illinois
Robbins, May A.
Roberts, Alma Gertrude
Robinson, Lottie A.
Russell, Mrs. M. D.
Royall, Elmira H.
Salaman, Mrs. Martha P.
Shapleigh, Harriet L.
Shead, Lucia Wadsworth
Small, Ella E.
Small, Lucretia M.
Smith, Mrs. Dorcas Polson
Smith, Sarah Bertha
Snow, Nellie C.
Stephens, Miss Eliza Helen
Stephens, George Lewis
Stover, Daniel R.
Strout, Mrs. Laura
Sweet, Emily Grace
Symonds, Della Hall
Talbot, Mrs. Ella M.
Tanner, Emma Beatrice
Thomes, Mrs. O. S.
Tracy, Matilda A.
Verrill, Mrs. Georgia
Vose, Mrs. Annie Russell
Wagg, Mrs. Josie F.
Walt, Lizzie A.
Wardwell, Julia Dauton
Watson, J. Mabel
Webber, Mrs. Eleanor F.
Whittemore, Alma
Willett, Miss Susan A.
Winslow, Susan F.
Wood, Charlotte
Wood, Mary M.
Myer, Miss Addie

MARYLAND

Barnes, William W.
Barnett, Florence Lee
Cox, Miss Rachel George
Culbreth, Mrs. Sallie G.
Daneker, Adelaide
Ebaugh, Annie Leaverton
Elmer, Minna F.
Franklin, Mary Ironshire
Hoover, Esther Elizabeth
Hopper, Ada May
Loud, Mettie M.
Main, Emma Meyers
Milbourne, Lizzie
Norwood, M.D. Vernon L.
Read, Frances D.
Rock, Miss Laura V.
Stewart, Agnes
Torch, Amelia A.
Townsend, George W.
Townsend, Mrs. T. M.
Tuttle, Alexander Harrison
Tuttle, Lottie G.
Verrell, Mrs. Lydia M.

MASSACHUSETTS

Abbe, Henry T.
Aldrich, Emma Eliza
Alexander, Charles Sumner

Andrews, Mrs. Gracia
Andrews, Lena Maria
Arnold, Henry
Atwood, Cyrus W.
Atwood, Mrs. Ida Augusta
Babson, Caroline Wheeler
Bailey, Frances E. D.
Bailey, Mrs. Nellie M.
Banister, Hattie M.
Batchelder, George R.
Bates, Lucy B.
Battles, Mrs. Elizabeth B.
Bauer, Mrs. Ada M.
Blodgett, Della Marion
Bouteile, Aoby G.
Brackett, Minnie Alice
Bradbury, Myra E.
Bray, Sarah A.
Bullard, Susan Augustus
Burnham, Laurie M.
Butler, Gardner S.
Butler, Mrs. Rosa M.
Butts, Mrs. Annie A.
Carroll, Miss Lizzie C.
Carter, Miss Anne
Carter, Miss Lulu
Carter, Mrs. Maria M.
Chace, Bertha Jane
Chace, Mrs. Hope Annie
Champlin, George G.
Charles, Lizzie C.
Cheney, Annie Knapp
Cheuey, Fannie Stearns
Cobb, Annie L.
Cole, Jefferson Kimball
Collins, Mrs. Caroline E.
Coney, Kate E.
Cooke, Lizzie G.
Crabtree, Emma Lauretta
Creaser, Annie
Crowell, Mrs. Mary F.
Cutter, Ella Frances
Curtis, Mrs. Maria M.
Dammell, Augusta
Davis, Mary Elizabeth
Davy, George
Decker, Flora B.
Dill, Mrs. Frances C.
Doe, Clara Emily
Doe, J. Wesley
Dunn, Miss Carrie M.
Emery, Lena Curtis
Evans, Erminia Lucy
Evans, Sallie J.
Everett, Mrs. J. C.
Farr, Lindley H.
Fawcett, William Ernest
Fleming, Mrs. E.
Flagg, Mrs. J. Walter
Fletcher, Lydia S.
Forness, Mary A.
Frost, Abbie Lizzie
Fuller, Mrs. Frances E.
Fuller, Jane E.
George, Clara Benner
Goddard, Mina Keyes
Goddard, Mrs. E. D. C.
Gooch, Miss Emma
Gosa, Edward
Grier, John H.
Griffin, Mrs. Wilmot R.
Hall, Martha Ellen
Hall, Sevlah Knowles
Halligan, Sarah
Hampson, Mrs. Fannie C.
Harrington, Addie Warren
Harris, Rebecca A.
Hawes, Harriet Bowman
Henderson, Agnes J.
Higley, Mrs. Sarah J.
Hildreth, Mrs. Belle M.
Hildreth, Sara T.
Hills, Charles Carroll
Hobby, Susan M.
Hodge, Susie Ethel
Holbrook, Nellie Maria
Holden, Addie M.
Holden, Mrs. G. S.
Holden, Gustavus S.
Holden, Henry H.
Holmes, Beatie T.
Holmes, Lizzie S.
Houghton, Harriet E.
Howard, Ella L.
Howard, Mary L.
Howes, Andrew
Howes, Mary S.
Howland, Jane S.

Hudson, Elmer Briggs
Jernegan, Eliza W.
Jewell, Mrs. Nettie E.
Johnson, Ella M.
Johnson, Mrs. Frank P.
Johnson, Frank P.
Johnson, Miss Harriet N.
Joyner, Emma Augusta
Kearser, Lizzie Cornelia
Keith, Lillian J.
Knight, Helen Callista
Knox, Adole C.
Knox, Watson E.
Landes, Mary
Lane, Margaret Electa
Lawrence, Nellie May
Lincoln, Lettie Deane
Livermore, Mary A.
Lord, Lizzie A.
Marden, Fred H.
Martin, Amy L.
McFarland, Bella J.
McFarland, Mary
McKinnor, Flora R.
Merritt, Edith Louise
Moore, Maria A.
Morrill, Mrs. S. D.
Morrow, Olive H.
Munroe, Mary Ring
Murdock, Mrs. Eleanor
Newton, Carrie
Newton, Maria Isabelle
Nichols, Lena
Norton, Fred Lewis
Odell, Nannie L.
Osborne, Annetta M.
Paddock, Mary
Paine, Mary Frances
Paine, Valetta Marion
Pattangall, Kate E.
Peabody, Alice S.
Peabody, Lucie Anna
Pease, Nina May
Peck, Elizabeth B.
Pierce, Hannah K.
Perry, Martha A.
Perry, Nancy
Pettengill, Luella May
Piper, Mrs. Julia M.
Piper, Volney
Pitcher, Mrs. Estelle Emma
Poland, Annie
Potter, Elizabeth Adelaide
Pray, Miss Ella Amanda
Prescott, Mrs. Jennie M.
Raynor, Mrs. Ella Abbey
Rhoads, Sarah A.
Rice, Mabel
Richards, Miss Nellie K.
Richmond, Sarah E. E.
Robinson, Lizzie Maria
Rommel, Mrs. Jennie C.
Sanborn, Rivra Amanda
Sargent, Margaret Hale
Sawyer, Mrs. Lucy A. H.
Sherman, Patience J.
Shute, Mrs. Harriet N.
Shuttleworth, Cora Louise
Simpson, Howard
Smith, Mrs. A. H.
Smith, Annie M.
Smith, Emma L.
Smith, Mrs. Hannah
Smith, Mrs. Myra Malinda
Snow, Mary Hazeltine
Spaulding, Ella E.
Sparrell, J. Florence
Spooner, Lizzie A.
Stearns, Rosa Frances
Stevens, Mrs. Ellen Annie
Stevens, Mrs. Mary C.
Stowell, Clara L.
Stowell, Eliza W.
Stratton, Miss Fanny H.
Swan, Frank
Symonds, Lucy L.
Taylor, Marion
Taylor, Mrs. Myra
Teaney, Belle L.
Thayer, Miss Anna Eliza
Thompson, Mrs. C. O.
Thygeson, Addie L.
Tufts, Mrs. Thomas T.
Varney, Mrs. Mary E.
Vaughn, Ella A.
Warren, Elizabeth Cushing
Watts, Annie E.

Welsh, Mrs. Helen Hannah
Wellington, Mrs. H. A.
Wells, Emily M.
Whipple, Lizzie Bradford
White, Isa Miles
Whittier, Abbie J.
Wilbur, Carrie B.
Wilkins, Annie L.
Wilson, Janet Harkness
Winslow, Cornelia G.
Woodbury, Sarah Gilmore
Woods, Julia Anna
Yeames, Amy M.
Young, Ellen M.

MICHIGAN

Abrams, Jennie
Aldrich, Nellie S.
Alger, Kate S.
Amadon, Mrs. G. W.
Arms, Bertha Estelle
Arnold, Mrs. Emely A.
Arnold, Mrs. Jennie A.
Averill, Eunice
Casey, Jeanne Reeve
Axtell, Mrs. Pauline A.
Bailey, Allie C.
Barton, Louisa A.
Bennett, Mrs. Minnie
Bilz, Miss Margaret J.
Blackmar, Minnie J.
Blackwood, Louisa Fawcett
Blair, Mrs. H. G.
Blair, Rev. W. H.
Bolt, J. J.
Bradley, Elizabeth F.
Briggs, Egbert L.
Briggs, Nellie H.
Bromley, Radia E.
Brown, Mrs. Giles T.
Brown, Mrs. J. H.
Burton, Etta A.
Cairns, Miss Cora E.
Campbell, Lizzie M.
Carder, Lucy
Carr, Mrs. V.
Casey, Mrs. Dottie F.
Cherry, Nettie C.
Chisholm, Anna Mannion
Cogswell, Alma
Collins, Mrs. Lucy J.
Cook, Mrs. C. T.
Cooper, Miss Anna L.
Copeland, Cornelia Alice
Crandall, Cenah H.
Cromwell, Mary Alice
Cummings, Juliet W.
Davis, Lena A.
De Laney, Mary K.
Denny, Mrs. J. Richmond
Dewey, Isabella
Dobbins, Emma
Eager, Lizzie
Eby, Mrs. Eva L.
Emery, Mrs. Eliza
English, Mrs. Ida E.
Everts, Mrs. Caroline W. F.
Field, Mrs. J. E.
Foot, Mrs. M. L.
Forbes, Ira L.
Frost, Jennie A.
Gilbert, Mrs. Mary A.
Gilmore, Alice C.
Goff, Mrs. Helen A.
Goff, Mrs. W. W.
Gray, Edith J.
Gregory, Elizabeth McP.
Hall, Mrs. J. N.
Hall, Mrs. J. S.
Hamilton, W. O.
Harker, Mrs. Kate R.
Hartman, Mrs. Joseph
Hartson, Bessie E.
Henderson, Mrs. Minnie J.
Hicks, Mrs. Julia
Hill, J. Benson
Hill, Mrs. Lizzie L.
Holmes, Carlos P.
Holmes, Mrs. C. P.
Howe, Clara E.
Howe, Ella V.
Hubbell, Mrs. Henry
Hunt, Noble
Hynes, M. Ella
Imman, Mrs. S. C.

Johns, A. Raymond
 Johnston, Mary E.
 Jones, Mrs. Mina B.
 Kelsey, Ada L.
 Kendrick, Carlotta F.
 Kendrick, Fidelia L.
 Kice, Adda Belle
 Knickerbocker, Mrs. C. M.
 Knowles, Francell E.
 Laner, Carrie E.
 Langley, Marion A.
 Lansing, Alice Cornelia
 Lansing, Mrs. F. E.
 Lansing, Francis Maynard
 Latta, Mrs. Kittie
 Lucas, Hattie B.
 Lyle, Mrs. Emmetta
 Lyon, Mrs. Frances E.
 Lyon, William R.
 Mansfield, Mrs. J. Rose
 Marble, Eliza
 Marble, Mrs. Eliza
 Marder, Mrs. Maggie
 Marks, Allie Evelyn
 Mather, Mary E.
 Maxwell, Maria F.
 McKee, Rhoda B.
 Messenger, Mrs. Nellie E.
 Miner, Sarah Helen Paine
 Moon, Edgar L.
 Moon, Lydia C.
 Morgan, Jesse J.
 Morgan, Mrs. Jesse J.
 Moulton, Delle Tietzel
 Moyes, Helen D.
 Naylor, Lucie M.
 Ottaway, Edith Myrtle
 Parker, Remond D.
 Parkinson, Mrs. M. E.
 Parks, Mrs. Eva A.
 Pascoe, Miss Bessie
 Passage, Cornelius E.
 Patterson, Lilla M.
 Patterson, Mary L.
 Peck, Mrs. Nellie E.
 Perry, Cornelia S.
 Post, Julia L.
 Prentiss, Miss Ada
 Preston, Mrs. Mary E. K.
 Pugh, Frank E.
 Ransom, Harriet Angella
 Redden, Mrs. Mariette
 Rheinhart, Miss Linda C.
 Rice, Harriet C.
 Root, Cora Isabella
 Ross, Mrs. Emma C.
 Rowley, Josephine L.
 Rudd, Marion L.
 Samson, Marie
 Schroeder, Mrs. F. P.
 Scott, Mary A.
 Scriber, Frudie W.
 Seely, Mrs. Savina J.
 Selleck, Cathalia Allen
 Sheldon, Franc Allen
 Shellamer, Rittie L.
 Shellamer, Miss Eugenia
 Shepard, Mrs. Rose C.
 Shepherd, Louisa M.
 Shoff, Mrs. Ida
 Smith, Belle C.
 Smith, Clement
 Smith, Miss Emma
 Smith, Mrs. R. J.
 Smith, Robert J.
 Stebbins, Mrs. Jerome A.
 Stratton, Mrs. Cornelia L.
 Sullivan, Mrs. Kate
 Tallmadge, Lila A.
 Thompson, Eunice
 Thompson, Lydia Reed
 Thurston, Alfred L.
 Tomlinson, Helen Isabel
 Torrey, Mrs. Abbie D.
 Utter, Carrie J. T.
 Van Deusen, Isadora
 Van Kleec, Mrs. Frances E.
 Van Kleec, L. Dida
 Vanpell, Miss Christina
 Wagner, Carrie Sweetland
 Wallace, Alice V.
 Wallbrecht, Minna L.
 Warner, Lottie B.
 Warren, Willis E.
 West, Bina M.
 West, Mrs. Ellen E.
 Williams, Frank H.

MINNESOTA

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 Bancroft, Stella J.
 Berry, Jennie V.
 Bliss, Mrs. Alice H.
 Bradford, Libbie P.
 Brown, Mrs. Charlotte
 Cook, Ella J.
 Cook, Stephen
 Craft, Mrs. Irene B.
 Damon, Mrs. Henry
 De Graw, Harriet S.
 De Graw, Sidney R.
 Dutcher, Vallie F.
 Evans, Ella A.
 Evans, Eva M.
 Evans, Hatty May
 Evans, Leora R.
 Gymbert, Bettie M.
 Hall, Mrs. Theresa P.
 Hanson, Mrs. Ruth
 Humphrey, Eliza A. F.
 James, Mrs. Emma A.
 Kennicott, Mrs. Maude A.
 Knowlton, Mrs. Ella R.
 Knowlton, Elliot A.
 Laybourn, Clara M.
 Laybourn, George R.
 Lyman, Mary J.
 Manning, Sara M.
 McHose, Mrs. Sarah W.
 Monfort, Mary J.
 Moyer, Mrs. Anna L.
 Moyer, Galen Delos
 Moyer, Lucyergus R.
 Northrup, Helen J.
 Perkins, Mrs. Flore A.
 Philbrick, Adance
 Pope, Mrs. R. R.
 Pugh, Mrs. James
 Robertson, Andrew C.
 Russell, E. R.
 Russell, Mrs. E. R.
 Shaw, Florence May
 Shedden, Emeline
 Small, Emma A.
 Southwick, Orin Frederick
 Stauff, Mrs. Mary J.
 Stewart, Ellen I. V.
 Wilcox, Mrs. Mary E.
 Wood, Mrs. W. C.
 Young, Mildred A.
 Younglove, Mrs. Blanche F.

MISSISSIPPI

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 Caldwell, Samuel C.
 Craft, Lizzie B.
 Dobbs, Mrs. Lee
 Dobbs, Silas B.
 Dobyne, J. R.
 Dobyne, Mrs. Lily W.
 Garrard, Francesca V.
 Kimbrough, Bradley T.
 Price, Mrs. Susan Willis
 Stevens, Sue Stuart
 Trigg, Sue Pelham

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 Avis, Mrs. William H.
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 Bennett, Mrs. Maggie McE.
 Biggerstaff, Mrs. Laura
 Blackburn, Lydia A.
 Blackmar, Lucy A.
 Blakemore, Mrs. M. F.
 Bobmann, Mrs. W. F.
 Boyd, Mrs. Mary S.
 Butler, Mrs. Mary Belle
 Campbell, Mrs. Mary W.
 Carhart, Ida M.
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 Clay, Maggie S.
 Clough, Emma P.
 Cook, Emma J.
 Cooney, Mrs. Dotia A. T.
 Cory, Miss Mamie A.
 Dewar, Jessie
 Dutcher, Charles Henry

Dutcher, Mrs. Rella P.
 Edwards, Mrs. Adda B.
 Elliott, F. Cora W.
 Elliott, Mrs. Lulu G.
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 Fletcher, Helen C.
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 Gise, Virginia
 Goad, George W.
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 Graves, Fannie C.
 Grover, Lizzie F.
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 Harding, Emily D.
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 Howe, Emma A.
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 Johnson, Janey
 Johnson, Mary Susan
 Jordin, John Franklin
 Keiser, Linnie May
 Kemper, Marie
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 Lasar, Madeline
 Lawton, Wallace W.
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 Lydenstricker, Mrs. H. M.
 Lynch, Mary E.
 Mardick, Mrs. W. A.
 Martin, Blanche
 Martin, Cora C.
 McCall, Fannie E.
 McElhinney, Sadie A.
 McGinnis, Cora Pauline
 Middelcoff, Kate M.
 Milburn, Clara A.
 Miller, Mrs. R. T.
 Miltenberger, Mrs. L. P.
 Neese, Albert
 Neese, Mrs. Ida J.
 Neil, Maggie H. Milliken
 Nelson, Lillian Waters
 Nowlin, Mildred A.
 Osborne, Mrs. George L.
 Paxton, Anna Maria
 Paxton, Phoebe Marshall
 Payton, Miss Cinna
 Pearce, Jessie C.
 Poe, Emma
 Powers, Anna M.
 Prewett, Nannie Wayne
 Robinson, Lillian Cornelia
 Roth, Jessie Virginia
 Russell, Frank
 Sanburn, Mary D.
 Schooler, Nettie Lynn
 Sloss, Alexander C.
 Stephens, A. H.
 Stephens, Mrs. A. H.
 Stepper, Martha A.
 Stewart, Mrs. D. L.
 Taylor, Miss Anna Belle
 Tebbs, Matilda P.
 Wallis, William M.
 Walterhouse, Mrs. C. A.
 Warner, Benjamin F.
 Webb, Emma Isabella H.
 Wells, E. Jennie
 Wetzel, Gustavus Edward
 Wilson, Harry B.
 Wray, M. Alice
 Zoll, Maggie

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 Fitch, Mrs. Lydia A.
 Free, Alice Lloyd
 Free, James Edwin

NEBRASKA

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 Atkinson, William S.
 Avery, Alice M.
 Bauer, Mary M.

Blood, Frank Allison
 Boyce, Lester Smith
 Calkins, Mary A.
 Clark, Mary Alta
 Clark, Perry Jacob
 Claxton, Estella F.
 Crewitt, Julia M.
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 DeLong, Clara R.
 Folda, Engelbert F.
 Gates, Mrs. Celia A.
 Gee, Mrs. Carrie McKee
 Good, Ellis E.
 Haines, Arthur T.
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 Healey, Jennie A. Reeve
 Henline, Mrs. Nellie
 Hockenberger, Henry F. J.
 Hood, Mrs. Emily P.
 Hostetler, Mrs. Ella M.
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 Jones, Olive
 Mahoney, Mrs. M. E.
 Martin, Leroy
 McDonald, Mrs. Minnie B.
 McKinley, Catherine A.
 McMullen, Blanche
 McMullen, Lizzie M.
 McMullen, Sallie C.
 Newman, Valentine
 Norris, Frances E.
 Osborn, Mary Hanford
 Ostrander, Martha A.
 Paley, Mrs. Henrietta
 Patterson, Mrs. Ellen H.
 Reed, John S.
 Rees, Margaret
 Rockwell, Mrs. Laura C.
 Ryan, Mrs. Lottie M.
 Sawyer, Laura E.
 Schumacher, Emma
 Scofield, Sophia McGiffert
 Searle, Addie
 Thomas, Lottie B.
 Weaver, Miss Clara E.
 Weaver, Valentine H.
 Wells, Ella Virginia
 Willis, Mrs. Lizzie
 Wood, Griffith L.

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 Weller, Mrs. Fannie M.

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 Baldwin, Mrs. Abby A.
 Bartlett, Anna M.
 Bean, George W.
 Benson, Mary E.
 Bickford, Mrs. Abbie M.
 Bickford, Miss Ella C.
 Bickford, Hattie Jennie
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 Burdette, Mrs. Luella J.
 Chase, Mary Packard
 Clark, Mrs. Cynthia A.
 Clark, Emily A.
 Colcord, Hattie Susan
 Cole, Mrs. Lucy J.
 Cole, Otis
 Connor, Mrs. Louise J.
 Crane, Lizzie E.
 Crosby, Mae L.
 Cross, Miss M. Rose
 Currier, Mrs. Annie M.
 Currier, David M.
 Cutler, E. Jennie
 Davis, Geo. I.
 Davis, Elsie M.
 Davis, J. Burnham
 Davis, Mrs. Mary A.
 Demeritt, Mrs. Martha W.
 De Meritt, Miss Laura A.
 Durrell, Mrs. Irene C.
 Durrell, J. M.
 Dutton, John Mason
 Eaton, Ella Everett
 Friskin, Hattie Rand
 Fairbanks, Emma Eldora
 Farrar, Mabel H.

Fogg, Ellen Pitkin
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 French, Mary E. C.
 Gibson, Alonso W.
 Gibson, Mrs. Idella E. N.
 Gilbert, Mrs. Sarah H.
 Gilman, Alice Jane
 Goddard, Mrs. Emma E.
 Greeley, Mrs. Annie M.
 Hall, Annie Josephine
 Hall, Henrietta G.
 Hall, Rowena E.
 Hammond, Mrs. Lua Mary
 Herbert, Mrs. Mary L.
 Horne, Eugene Herbert
 Jewett, Edith Augusta
 Jewett, Jessie Frances
 Johnson, Nettie L.
 Kimball, Mary Grace
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 Lane, Myra F.
 Laton, Clara Kiz
 Leavitt, Mrs. Nellie S.
 Leighton, Mrs. Marantha
 Lord, Alma W.
 Miller, Adelaide L. G.
 Mould, Jennie Stearns
 Nichols, Joseph T.
 Nichols, Mrs. Martha J.
 Norris, Mrs. Martha F.
 Noyes, Lizzie D.
 Osgood, Frances P.
 Page, Emma S.
 Paul, Mrs. Jennie H.
 Phelps, Miss Sara Eliza
 Philbrick, Jennie A.
 Pratt, Theodore Constantine
 Prescott, Mary E.
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 Quinby, Mrs. Martha P.
 Rich, J. Otis
 Richardson, Ellen Ruddick
 Richardson, Grace Alice
 Rundlett, Mrs. Lizzie M.
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 Runnells, Katherine Baker
 Runnells, Katherine Louise
 Sanders, Harriet Bright
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 Shackford, Mrs. Clara A.
 Smith, Miss Anna M.
 Smith, Mrs. Annie E.
 Stevens, Adelia H.
 Thompson, Mrs. Elbridge H.
 Tilton, Miss Mary E.
 Watson, Ann Mary
 Watson, Evelyn Marshall
 Webber, Mary
 Webster, Mary Merserva
 Weymouth, Mrs. Ida A.
 Winch, Corinne H.
 Winch, George
 Woodbury, Mrs. W. L.
 Wyatt, Mrs. Harry C.
 Yeoman, Eunice G.
 Yeoman, William Hudson
 Young, Mrs. Carrie E.

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 Aiken, Ina G.
 Aiken, Mabel
 Andrews, Emma B.
 Appar, E. Lorce
 Ashley, Emma
 Baker, George M.
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 Blake, Alice E.
 Blauvelt, Miss Kittie
 Bombhoff, Clara E.
 Bombhoff, May
 Bottomley, Miss Henrietta
 Brachmann, Emily
 Brockett, Edith Agnes
 Brockett, Edward J.
 Brown, Louisa A.
 Brown, Nelson J.
 Bull, Ira B.
 Burch, Laura E.
 Byrne, Charles Francis
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 Clark, David Warren
 Clarkson, Hattie T.
 Collins, Mrs. Rachel H.
 Compton, Ella A.

Conover, Jennie B.
 Corson, Miss Caroline
 Crane, Frances C.
 Crawford, Margaret W.
 Cuddeback, Miss Olive
 Dawson, Mrs. Anna E. R.
 Day, Gertrude
 Day, Nellie B.
 Damarest, Benjamin G.
 Eastlack, Margaretta
 Ely, Charles Kaye
 Ensign, Carrie E.
 Folsom, Clara Eliza
 Frames, Miss Amy C.
 Garwood, Joanna B.
 Gaskill, Laura M.
 Gates, Lotta M.
 Goodwin, Lydia Reeve
 Gorton, Carrie Ellen
 Gorton, Robert
 Gostine, Edward W.
 Halsey, Alice Bodine
 Hasbrouck, Miss Annie G.
 Hedges, Mrs. A. J.
 Hendrickson, Susan C.
 Hillard, Mary Lawrence
 Hinchman, Laura C.
 Holsome, Hattie N.
 Howls, Annie T.
 Hough, Francis A.
 Ireland, M. Anna
 Ireland, Tillie S.
 Lawrence, Lulu
 Mackey, Frances Tillie
 Miller, Julia Carmichael
 Morris, Mrs. Anna
 Morris, Ebenezer E.
 Morris, Luke
 Muller, Emma
 Muller, Miss Lizzie
 Nichols, Lillie
 Okerson, Ella R.
 Pelletreau, Fannie M.
 Pfeiffer, S. Emma
 Plince, Frank W.
 Plumb, Mrs. Clara E.
 Porter, William S.
 Potter, Mrs. Mary C.
 Randolph, Nancy
 Reid, Jennie
 Sandy, Mrs. Eliza R.
 Scudder, Harriet
 Shilton, Esther Maria
 Shugg, Miss Marie A.
 Sparks, May Pauline
 Sperry, A. W.
 Stadler, May
 Stout, Mary M.
 Tegen, Emma
 Todd, Margaret Ruth
 Van Blarcom, Caroline M.
 Vincelette, Charles F.
 Walker, Mary A.
 Ware, Ada E.
 Ware, Hattie Genia
 Washburn, Lillian
 Weir, May F.
 West, Mary E.
 West, Mrs. Sarah W.
 Whitney, Georgia S.
 Whitney, Jennie E.
 Williams, Amelia E.
 Williams, Anna K.

NEW MEXICO

Breeden, Mrs. Grace Baker
 Manderfield, Cyrella
 Manderfield, Eugenia

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 Abrams, Mrs. Geo. B.
 Achorn, Lizzie F.
 Adams, Alberta E.
 Adams, Mrs. Alida R.
 Adams, Jennie
 Aldrich, Jennie E.
 Alexander, Mrs. Frances S.
 Allen, Cynthia J.
 Allen, Lettie E.
 Allen, Mrs. O. F.
 Allen, William A.
 Ames, Jennie E.
 Andrews, Bertha Adaline
 Anthony, Clara Rockwell

Ash, Mrs. Anna E.
 Avery, Hattie Louisa
 Avery, Lina Field
 Aylesworth, Minnie F.
 Babcock, Mrs. Ella B.
 Babcock, Zilpha
 Bailey, Miss Anna L.
 Baker, Ella M.
 Barber, Carrie Alida
 Barber, Jessie Rifleda
 Barker, Charles B.
 Barrett, Alice H.
 Bascom, Mrs. Rollin E.
 Bascom, Mrs. Elzora Noble
 Bates, Alice Bailey
 Bates, K. Adelia
 Beaman, Lucy P.
 Bean, Mrs. Bert
 Beck, Bertha Christine
 Beck, Lulu E.
 Beebe, Miss Ellen F.
 Bell, Anna
 Bell, John Joseph
 Benedict, Charles E.
 Benedict, Mamie K.
 Bennett, M. D., Franklin
 Bentley, Mrs. Abbie
 Bergen, Miss Mary S.
 Bernhardt, Fannie Ryder
 Berry, Marie Louisa
 Best, Fannie Ellaler
 Bigelow, Lucia A.
 Blackman, Mrs. Elizabeth
 Booth, Etta May
 Bowstick, Rachel S.
 Bowen, Alice E.
 Bowen, Miss Eleanor O.
 Boylan, Hattie M.
 Bray, Charlotte C.
 Brenton, Benjamin J.
 Briggs, Miss Anna Statura
 Briggs, Mrs. Fannie J.
 Brown, Mrs. George N.
 Brown, Jennie H.
 Browne, Mrs. Julius F.
 Brückbauer, Frederick
 Buell, Hattie E.
 Bullymore, Eliza A.
 Burlingame, Mrs. L. M.
 Burnham, Mrs. W. E.
 Burnham, Wright E.
 Bursch, Dan F. W.
 Bush, Mrs. R. M.
 Butler, Mary A.
 Butler, Stewart Elliott
 Byrne, Isabella M.
 Cadwallader, Algen S.
 Cadwallader, Mrs. Alice V.
 Callaghan, Mary K.
 Campbell, Mrs. A. Monroe
 Card, Miss Emma
 Case, Mrs. Clara E.
 Case, Jennie L.
 Caswell, Mrs. T. A.
 Chace, Adelia C.
 Chadwick, Florence A.
 Chamberlain, Lydia
 Charles, Tina Howell
 Chase, Anna Laura
 Cheeseman, Eliza Holt
 Clapsaddle, Mary Ella
 Clark, Julia D.
 Clark, Mary E. C.
 Clarke, Helen S.
 Clift, Agnes
 Coe, Hattie R.
 Coffin, Carrie
 Coffin, Latham
 Coffin, Sarah M.
 Cole, Carrie E.
 Cole, Mrs. Gracia A.
 Colvin, Mrs. Julia A. B.
 Connock, Emma B.
 Conger, Gertrude M.
 Cook, Rev. Edward James
 Cook, Ellen Terry
 Cook, Mrs. Emily A.
 Cooley, Mrs. Martha A.
 Cotrael, Carlton H.
 Cotrael, Mrs. C. H.
 Cotrael, Mrs. Ellen H.
 Cotrael, Jennie E.
 Coville, Mrs. Fidella E.
 Coville, Mary A.
 Coward, Hattie Belle
 Coy, Adella Fidella
 Cozens, Mary F.

Cramer, Atlanta W.
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 Crane, William Pierson
 Crawley, Augustine
 Crayton, Sarah Jane
 Crippen, Mrs. J. Hicks
 Crippen, Mrs. Laura
 Crowley, Mary E.
 Cummings, Mrs. Mary Ella
 Cummings, Scott
 Curtice, Mrs. Stella M.
 Cutler, Mrs. Martha
 Daley, Charles S.
 Dauphin, Miss Sophie
 Davidson, Miss Annis
 Davies, Emily Hall
 Davis, Mrs. Almira D.
 Davis, Cora T.
 Davis, Mrs. R. C.
 Davis, S. Anna
 Deal, Jennie V.
 Deal, Laura Parmelee
 Dell, George W.
 Denniston, Charles M.
 Devereux, Horace E.
 Devereux, Mary Lena
 Devereux, Olivia S.
 DeWitt, Ida J.
 Dodgson, Anna
 Donaldson, Helen M.
 Dorr, Nannie F.
 Downes, Mrs. Florence T.
 Drake, Henry C.
 Draper, William F.
 Dudley, Mrs. Frances B.
 Dudley, William Knapp
 Durga, Mrs. Minnie B.
 Dwight, Mrs. Julia Arnold
 Eaton, Mrs. Nina M.
 Eaton, Thomas
 Ecker, Sattie V.
 Ensign, Miss Estella
 Ensign, Miss Luella
 Emery, Mary E.
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 Fenton, Lulu E.
 Finnermore, Miss Libbie A.
 Fisher, A. M.
 Pitch, Mrs. Mary M.
 Pitch, Mrs. V. D.
 Flanders, Blatta
 Flanders, Nancy M.
 Flint, Julia D.
 Folsom, Millie M.
 Forbes, Fidelia A.
 Mead
 Ford, Hattie
 Foster, Mrs. Ella C.
 Foster, Hettie S.
 Freedland, Mrs. Lottie E.
 Fritchler, Mrs. Maggie
 Frost, Timothy Prescott
 Fulton, Mary E.
 Fumridge, Samuel
 Gardiner, Ellen
 Gardner, Emma A.
 Gates, Mrs. Marion Helen
 Gay, Laura
 Gaylord, Miss May
 Geer, Mrs. S. Edith
 Gerow, Hattie H.
 Gerst, Benjamin E.
 Giffin, Mrs. C. M.
 Giffin, Gertrude T.
 Gildenleeve, Miss Lois F.
 Glover, Maud Clara
 Goo, Gertrude A. W.
 Goo, Louisa May
 Gore, Mary Adelia
 Gorrie, Mrs. Maggie C.
 Gould, Stella
 Graves, Anna Maria
 Graves, Emily C.
 Gray, Mrs. Charlotte C.
 Green, Sarah M.
 Green, Mrs. Zelia K.
 Griffin, Mrs. E. J.
 Griffith, Miss Mary A.
 Griffith, Miss Sarah J.
 Guernsey, Mrs. Viola
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 Hall, Mrs. Alfred E.
 Hall, Harriet Bacon
 Hall, Jennie Wilson
 Hall, Mrs. Josie A.
 Hall, Mrs. Lucy B.
 Hall, Mary F.
 Hallock, Sarah

Hamilton, Emma D.
 Hanchett, Willis H.
 Haner, Mrs. Harriet S.
 Hannan, Mrs. Annie Bell
 Haring, Miss Bertha S.
 Haring, Helen
 Harmon, Mrs. Phebe S.
 Harrington, Phebe J.
 Harris, Florence H.
 Hart, Mrs. Fannie E.
 Harwood, Ella E.
 Hatch, Mrs. Celestia E.
 Hatch, Hyatt C.
 Hatch, Minnie
 Hathaway, J. Francis
 Haveland, Deborah A.
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 Hawley, Mary Willis
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 Healy, Mrs. B. S.
 Helm, Alpha G.
 Helm, Bertha E.
 Henry, John C.
 Herrick, Jessie L.
 Hoag, May W.
 Hoag, Myrtle A.
 Hoag, William I.
 Hodges, Nellie H.
 Hodgkins, Mary E.
 Holder, Reuben Bunn
 Holsten, Mrs. Rebecca M.
 Holt, Lizzie Lovell
 Horton, Linnie
 Howard, Ellen E.
 Howard, Louisa E.
 Howe, Eva Elizabeth M.
 Howe, Lottie M.
 Howe, May Bell
 Hoxie, Dorinda L.
 Hoyt, Anna
 Hubbell, Mrs. Leonora H.
 Hugson, Mrs. Della T.
 Hughton, Miss Alma E.
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 Jeffres, Lillian M.
 Johnson, Rena L.
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 Jones, Mary
 Jones, Thomas I.
 Junior, Mrs. Rhoda L.
 Keeney, Georgia S.
 Kellogg, Nannie E.
 Kelley, Laura H.
 Kennedy, Mrs. Mary J.
 Kernan, Mrs. Emily J.
 Kerr, Mary Isabel
 King, Mrs. A. R.
 King, Belle H.
 King, Libbie H.
 King, Mrs. Lillian E. H.
 Kingman, Lizzie B.
 Kirby, Annie C.
 Knapp, Ella Y.
 Knapp, Mrs. J. W.
 Knickerbacker, Caroline C.
 Kowalk, Mrs. Albertina
 Lansing, John H.
 Lansing, Mary Louisa
 Lapham, Julia Adelle
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 Lewis, Mary B.
 Lobdell, Mary
 Lockwood, Jennie May
 Lockwood, Mrs. Nancy M.
 Long, Miss Martha H.
 Longstreet, Robert N.
 Loveridge, Ruth Morgan
 Lowell, Ada M.
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 Luther, Mrs. Byron J.
 Lyndon, William Stow
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 Lyon, Charles W.
 Lyon, Eunice A. S.
 Lyon, Frank G.
 Lyon, Fred M.
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 Marshall, Pratt Rnoch
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 McKown, Cora B.
 McLaughlin, Miss Amanda
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 Miller, Maggie
 Miller, Mattie
 Miller, Mrs. M. Louise
 Mills, Robert S.
 Miner, Mrs. Rexaville
 Mitchell, Gertrude W.
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 Moore, Frederick Royal
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 Morehouse, Wilnot Lincoln
 Morgan, Ruth Ann
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 Morris, Carrie Elizabeth
 Morris, Kate L.
 Mould, Martha
 Neil, Grant E.
 Nelson, John
 Nessle, Mrs. William H.
 Nichols, Gertrude Manning
 Nichols, Sarah Alice
 North, Charlotte Elizabeth
 Nourse, Sara C.
 O'Brian, Kate
 O'Dell, Cynthia T.
 Osmer, Margaret E.
 Ostrander, James S.
 Ostrander, Julia C.
 Ostrom, Anna M.
 Packer, E. E.
 Paddock, Sophronia M.
 Parker, Anna Mary
 Parkes, Marie J.
 Parmelee, Miss Anna M.
 Parsons, Mrs. Estelle V.
 Patten, Julia A.
 Patterson, James H.
 Patterson, Mrs. Susan
 Paul, Miss Ida D.
 Paul, Mrs. Sarah A.
 Peckham, Mrs. V. E.
 Peek, Carrie May
 Perry, Amanda Evelyn
 Perry, Mrs. Sarah J.
 Phelps, Miss Alice J.
 Phelps, Charles B.
 Phelps, Julia D.
 Phillips, Jennie
 Phillips, Maria
 Pierce, Mrs. Lucy S.
 Pierce, Nettie H.
 Pingrey, Mrs. Emma A.
 Potter, Mrs. Hulda A.
 Powell, Joseph W.
 Powell, Sarah E.
 Powers, Mrs. Mary A. McN.
 Pratt, Frederick Edwin
 Pratt, Stella A.
 Preston, Arthur Edwin
 Priest, Mary Jane
 Prosser, Jefferson W.
 Prosser, Sarah E.
 Putnam, Mrs. Lelia Cotton
 Putnam, Mrs. Mary Eppie
 Keed, Mary F.
 Vibbard, Adella M.
 Reynolds, Alice S.
 Reynolds, Florence M. C.
 Reynolds, Nellie A.
 Rice, Luann C.
 Richardson, Fred H.
 Richardson, Kate G.
 Richardson, Mrs. Luella

Ricker, Edith M.
 Riddle, Carrie Ione P.
 Rittersbaugh, Ellen V.
 Robbins, Ellen M.
 Roberts, Mrs. Bella M. S.
 Roberts, Maria G.
 Roberts, Orlo Newton
 Robinson, Flora James
 Rogers, Elizabeth N.
 Root, Joanna
 Root, Miss Mittie
 Rose, J. Frederic
 Rose, Nettie A.
 Ross, Miss Clara Correlia
 Runciman, Mrs. George
 Ryckman, Garrett E.
 Sackett, Emma C.
 Sage, Mrs. Celia Miller
 Santee, Mrs. Jerry E. B.
 Sargent, Clara L.
 Schofield, Mrs. Thomas
 Secor, Mrs. G. E.
 Sell, Martha A.
 Selleck, Mrs. C. W.
 Semans, Mrs. Carrie E.
 Sentell, Blanche Marion
 Sentell, Charles Edward
 Sentell, Gertrude Maud
 Servis, J. Edelle
 Sharp, Jennie L.
 Shay, Carrie B.
 Shepard, Mary Elizabeth
 Sherwood, Birdella Van R.
 Sherwood, Jessie Maria
 Short, Alice C.
 Short, Mary D.
 Skinner, Mrs. Helen E.
 Smallwood, Mrs. Eloise M.
 Smead, Mrs. Emma A. G.
 Smith, Anna L.
 Smith, Mrs. Charlotte S.
 Smith, Fannie Lord
 Smith, M.A., J. Albert
 Smith, Lena L.
 Smith, Mrs. Lida V.
 Smith, Lucia Dewey
 Smith, Oscar D.
 Smith, Mrs. Thalia E.
 Snedeker, George W.
 Snow, Mrs. Louise
 Snyder, Mrs. Cynthia
 Snyder, Ella J.
 Squires, Mrs. Georgia H.
 Staples, Arden W.
 Staples, Edna S.
 Starkweather, Belle A.
 Starr, Belle
 Stetson, Kirk A.
 Stewart, Mrs. Emma C.
 Stiles, Aletha Halsted
 Stone, Mrs. F. J.
 Stone, Helen A.
 Stowell, Martha W.
 Strong, Alice Lorena
 Swan, Miss Dora Alice
 Swan, Mrs. Minnie Fincke
 Syler, Miss Laura E.
 Tabor, Mrs. Mary E.
 Taft, M. Alice
 Taylor, Margaret C.
 Taylor, Marion E. G.
 Taylor, Minnie B.
 Taylor, Ruth E.
 Tew, Lucia Whitney
 Thatcher, Mary E.
 Thayer, Estelle
 Thomas, Lizzie M.
 Tier, Mrs. Caroline A.
 Tooke, Mrs. A. B.
 Trowbridge, Harriet S.
 Tuttle, Minerva
 Twining, Chloe Smith
 Twining, Edward Ellis
 Van Arsdale, Mrs. Clara D.
 Van Brunt, Minnie
 Van Buskirk, Arthera
 Van Norman, Mary L.
 Van Wagemen, Lorraine R.
 Vibbard, Mrs. Abel R.
 Vibbard, Adella M.
 Volmer, Mrs. Carrie
 Wagner, Mrs. H. E. F.
 Waldorf, Lizzie
 Walker, Ira Taylor
 Walker, Minnie Marea
 Walker, Orcellia A.
 Walker, William Henry

Waterbury, Mrs. Frances S.
 Watkins, Allington W.
 Watkins, Miss Mary Louise
 Weeks, Miss Phebe E.
 Wells, Mrs. C. W.
 Wells, Mrs. Tella M.
 Werrey, Maria J.
 Westcott, William H.
 Whitelaw, Margaret A.
 Wilkins, Mrs. Charles E.
 Willard, Mrs. Charles E.
 Williams, Harriette B.
 Williams, Miss Hattie O.
 Williams, Minnie A.
 Williamson, Miss Martha W.
 Wilson, Mrs. David G.
 Wing, Emma Olivia
 Wolcott, Mrs. N. H.
 Wolsey, Franc J.
 Woodburn, William B.
 Woodworth, Miss Clara
 Wright, Mrs. Hugh
 Wright, Rev. John Bee
 Wright, Mrs. Mary F.
 Young, Mrs. Sarah

NORTH CAROLINA

Chapman, Mary E.
 Cutchin, Walter T.
 Poindexter, Pattie

NORTH DAKOTA

Cansfield, Jennie Mead
 Coats, Mabel M.
 Lauterman, Mrs. Sadie
 Lockwood, Alie Osborne

OHIO

Adams, William Allen
 Albaugh, Frances L.
 Alden, Mrs. Rebecca
 Alexander, Mrs. John W.
 Alsapach, Clinton
 Ames, Mrs. Elizabeth S.
 Anderson, Miss Maggie J.
 Andrews, Mrs. Elizabeth D.
 Appy, Mrs. E. F.
 Arthur, Mrs. Mattie Hudd
 Avery, Mary Louise
 Baker, Miss Maggie M.
 Baldwin, Gertrude
 Ball, Miss Emily
 Barkdull, Mrs. Mary A.
 Bartlett, Miss Laura F.
 Bates, Josie Elliott
 Bates, Mary J.
 Beecher, Mrs. Georgia F.
 Belden, Rosalie
 Bell, Mrs. R. W.
 Benjamin, Miss Addie L.
 Benjamin, Miss Laura F.
 Bennett, Fannie M.
 Bergdoll, Maranda Z.
 Bess, Jennie Belle
 Binns, David
 Blackwood, Rita
 Blakeslee, Emily
 Bonney, Frances E.
 Booher, Mrs. Nannie E.
 Bosworth, Eliab A.
 Boyd, Mrs. Nannie C.
 Brenaman, Emmett A.
 Briggs, Miss Dora
 Britten, Alice G.
 Brown, Mrs. Dovie
 Browne, Mrs. Mary P.
 Bruen, Susanna
 Burrington, Nellie A.
 Butler, Charles W.
 Campbell, Mrs. Jessie I.
 Campbell, Mrs. Lola M.
 Canniff, Mrs. Grotzella
 Carroll, Mary
 Casement, Grace
 Caselli, Luella
 Caverly, Sarah E.
 Chadwick, Lora
 Chamberlin, Mrs. L. W.
 Chambers, Carrie L. C.
 Chester, Mrs. Emma A.
 Clapsaddle, Samuel I.
 Clayland, Margaret H.
 Cline, Mrs. S. Jennie

Cole, Bertha H.
 Collocott, Mrs. Louise A.
 Conklin, Mrs. Lizzie T.
 Cook, May
 Coultrap, Nellie M.
 Crawford, Edwin M.
 Crawford, John J.
 Cunningham, Maggie
 Curtis, Mrs. Alice L.
 Cutler, Sarah Julia
 Daniels, Mrs. F. J.
 Davidson, Mrs. I. C.
 Davidson, I. C.
 Dawson, Mrs. Ammie
 Dawson, Bess M.
 Denel, Mrs. A. C.
 Derhick, Fanny Moore
 Doering, Mrs. Florence
 Douglass, Bessie
 Downie, Mrs. Mary M.
 Drury, Mrs. Lou
 Drury, Marion R.
 Dunham, Allen B.
 Dunham, Sadie M.
 Dunham, Susan
 Earseman, Agnes
 Eggleston, M. May
 Ekey, Anna
 Eymann, Amelia A.
 Eymann, Emma F.
 Eymann, Mary C.
 Pike, Mrs. M. Jennie
 Fisher, Eliza A.
 Forbes, Mrs. Lottie F.
 Folger, Anna Ann
 Folger, Elizabeth A.
 Frances, Miss Maggie E.
 Fribble, Mrs. Harriet C.
 Fuhs, Mrs. Emma M.
 Gay, Amy Brownell
 Gay, Mrs. Fauny Wilson
 Gay, Grace Wilson
 Gentner, Lilly May
 Gianque, Mary Miller
 Gleason, Alice A.
 Gleason, Mamie
 Glenn, Fanny S.
 Good, Harriet De
 Goodwin, Cornelia Jackson
 Graham, Clara
 Graham, Miss Eliza Janet
 Granel, Mary Norma
 Gray, Mrs. Ada
 Gray, Lou
 Gray, Martha Hawkins
 Green, Ida E.
 Guy, Sarah M.
 Haden, Mrs. Florence P.
 Hamilton, Cora
 Hare, Emilie R.
 Harmount, George P.
 Harmount, Mattie L.
 Harper, Ezra May
 Harrington, Mrs. H. B.
 Harvey, Mrs. Clyde L.
 Hawver, Mrs. Mary C.
 Hayes, Mrs. Hester
 Heald, Arthur G.
 Hefebower, Fannie C.
 Hefebower, Olive
 Hemenway, Almira
 Henry, Carlton
 Hiett, Mrs. Mary E.
 Hiles, Hattie E.
 Hinman, Belle
 Hinman, Elgin H.
 Holden, Mrs. Winfield S.
 Holgate, Florence G.
 Holmes, Eudora B.
 Holmes, Laura M.
 Hoover, Mrs. Anna Bell
 Hopkins, Mrs. Nettie M.
 Howard, Mrs. Fred W.
 Huffman, Mrs. Minnie S.
 Hurdle, Eda E.
 Hurst, Mary Huntington
 Hutchinson, Mrs. W. H.
 Ireland, Mrs. G. M.
 Jackson, Mrs. Sarah J.
 Jones, Frederick Rouse
 Jenny, Mary E.
 Jewett, Mary Emma
 Jones, Gertie B.
 Jones, Mrs. Mary R.
 Juvenali, Laura H.
 Kautz, Ella
 Kelham, Sarah

Kelley, Della
 Kelley, Minnie E.
 Kemp, Mrs. Ella R.
 Kennedy, Rebecca E.
 Kerr, Mrs. Lizzie J.
 Keyes, Jennie S.
 Keyes, Rev. Monroe James
 King, Rev. Fred E.
 King, Mrs. Lulu F.
 Kingsley, Lobbie
 Kingley, Mary
 Kirk, Bessie Marie
 Krebs, Jennie A.
 Kroehle, Mrs. Ella
 Lafferty, Emma
 Lamb, Mrs. Amanda M.
 Landis, Mrs. A. M.
 La Tourrette, Mary J.
 Leach, Jennie A.
 Leshman, Ella
 Lockhart, John M.
 Lockhart, Sarah A.
 Losee, Jennie C.
 Lowrie, Mrs. Aletta M.
 Lupton, M. Ella
 Lyons, Anna M.
 Lytle, Miss Cinda
 Lytle, Louise C.
 Maltbie, Mrs. Ednie P.
 Mapes, Anna T.
 Martin, Mrs. Hester P.
 Martin, Jennie
 Martin, Oswald L.
 Martindale, Henry C.
 Martindale, Mrs. Mary E.
 Mathews, George M.
 Matthews, Grace S.
 McCaughey, Harriet
 McCaughey, William D.
 McCord, Emma L.
 McCormick, John B.
 McCormick, Martha M.
 McCoy, Claudius T.
 McGrew, Mrs. Hulda
 McHenry, George Albert
 Mead, Mrs. Annie E.
 Meech, Clarabell
 Miller, Clara E.
 Miller, Mary A.
 Miller, Mary L.
 Millice, Mattie
 Mills, Jennie E.
 Mitchell, Clara J.
 Mitchell, Hattie S.
 Mooney, Lillie E.
 Morgan, Mrs. Carrie A.
 Morgan, Miss Nina
 Nail, Emma B.
 Neiberger, Flora Bell
 Neiberger, Jennie
 Nelson, Evaline Wright
 Ninechelsier, Mrs. Annie E.
 Noland, Mrs. D. A.
 Norris, Mrs. G. T.
 Otte, Mrs. Fannie E.
 Owen, Helen M.
 Paige, Helen L. Steele
 Paine, Almira J.
 Parker, Allie S.
 Patton, Mrs. Sarah J.
 Pearson, Rose K.
 Peele, Ella J.
 Peele, Harriet F. G.
 Peele, Reuben B.
 Pennybacker, Mrs. adda A.
 Perkins, Mrs. A. D.
 Pfauener, George F.
 Philper, Mrs. Vinnie
 Phipps, Melissa V.
 Popejoy, Mrs. Elizabeth C.
 Porter, Adda
 Porter, Ida P.
 Preston, Gilbert Dix
 Prosser, Mrs. Adell
 Ransower, Pett L.
 Raymer, Miss Cassie S.
 Roe, Mrs. Joseph
 Reddin, Salia E. N.
 Reed, Sallie
 Reed, Sue
 Reynolds, Flora G.
 Richards, Mrs. Marnie D.
 Richards, Martha C.
 Richards, Mary E.
 Roe, S. Jennie
 Rood, Florence D.
 Rood, Sarah Dorman

Ross, Olive P.
 Sams, Mrs. Mary George
 Sayra, Mrs. Jennie
 Schenck, Robert N.
 Searle, Mrs. Mary A.
 Sears, Elvira S.
 Seffner, Mrs. Emma
 Shaffer, Mrs. Alicia B.
 Sharp, Mrs. Ida L.
 Shaw, Mrs. James
 Sheldon, Eliza H.
 Sherwood, Sarah Frances
 Shigley, Anna B.
 Shuman, Marie Olive
 Sibbett, Mary Alice
 Simons, Harriet
 Sisset, Clara Amanda
 Sisset, Mrs. Sarah A.
 Slough, Charles Frederick
 Smedley, Mrs. Idalia
 Smith, Katharine
 Spain, Lydia A.
 Stansbury, Lillie Walls
 Starbuck, Eva B.
 Starr, Mrs. Sarah Elizabeth
 Steele, Lucia Sessions
 Stevenson, Mrs. H. R. W.
 Stonebarger, Mattie J.
 Strauss, Annie M.
 Stroup, Mrs. Sarah B.
 Sturges, Mrs. Carrie H.
 Suitebaugh, Lizzie
 Taylor, Anna
 Taylor, Carrie C.
 Taylor, Harriette
 Thomas, Annette H.
 Thompson, Alice Helen
 Thompson, Carrie Frances
 Thompson, Mrs. Harriet B.
 Thresher, Mary Abbott
 Tillison, Gertrude M.
 Tolman, Julia M.
 Tracy, Mrs. Clara E.
 Tucker, Cecilia
 Tyler, Alice H.
 Tyler, Reuben
 Van Alstine, Miss Louie
 Vance, Mrs. Belle
 Van Dervort, Jonah S.
 Van Kirk, Mrs. Mary E.
 Viers, Nettie
 Votaw, Martha Euchola
 Wainwright, Mary
 Walker, Arthur
 Wallace, Richard
 Wallace, Mrs. William
 Washburn, Mrs. Lyde V.
 Weaver, Anna J.
 Welch, Anna L.
 Wells, Mrs. Ida C.
 Wentworth, Celia H.
 Wertman, Ida Louella
 Wetherell, Joseph
 White, Mrs. Lizzie
 Whiteman, Jennie G.
 Wilcox, Miss Vina
 Williams, Cora
 Williams, Miss Fannie
 Williamson, Lillie
 Wilson, Anna M.
 Wood, Jennie M.
 Wright, Mrs. Eliza C.
 Wright, Louisa S.
 Yerger, Fanny A.
 Zimmerman, Marinda W.

OKLAHOMA TERRITORY

Carter, Mrs. Frances

OREGON

Aiken, Mrs. J. C.
 Brown, Calvin J.
 Campbell, Lelia M.
 Flint, Mrs. C. E.
 Klink, Adam E.
 Lange, Mrs. August
 Loccy, Maria M.
 Loccy, Mary B.
 Loccy, Susie C.
 Long, Finley
 Marsh, Charles H.
 Robinson, Maranda H.
 Smith, M. Stella
 Swigert, Celia C.
 Wright, Emma M.

PENNSYLVANIA

Abrams, Mrs. Anna M.
 Acornby, William Henry
 Alcorn, Millie M.
 Alexander, William C.
 Allen, Ellen E.
 Allen, Josephine B.
 Andrews, Mary C.
 Arison, K. C.
 Armstrong, Laura M.
 Atkinson, Mary Williams
 Bane, Edith N.
 Barnesly, Lydia Harper
 Barrett, Miss Jennie
 Bates, Edith
 Bender, Marguerette W.
 Beyer, W. S.
 Bingham, Miss Mary
 Bingham, Mrs. Nettie Allen
 Bird, Annie E.
 Black, Edith H.
 Black, Emma Lella
 Black, Mrs. Hattie V.
 Bonwaitz, Magdalen
 Bookstaver, Harriet Mott
 Boom, M.D., Harry Herbert
 Bowen, Jessie
 Boyce, J. H.
 Brendie, Belle H.
 Brendie, Kimira S.
 Brooke, Miss Mary
 Brown, Laura
 Brown, Mrs. Samantha
 Bucher, Eliza A.
 Burnham, Grace
 Burroughs, Miss Ellie J.
 Cameron, Alice M.
 Cameron, C. J.
 Cameron, Clara
 Cameron, Norris
 Campbell, James E.
 Carn, Mary E.
 Carpenter, Harriet A.
 Chase, Mrs. Fred L.
 Chase, Jennie Butterworth
 Chestnut, Mrs. Sabra L.
 Clark, Annie Frances
 Clark, Blanche M.
 Clark, Mary E.
 Claudy, Maggie B.
 Clegg, Emma J.
 Clugston, Maud Margaret
 Clugston, Sadie A.
 Colegrove, Mrs. Winifred M.
 Comly, Elizabeth T.
 Conaway, Mrs. Angie L.
 Cook, Carrie Sophia
 Cook, George W.
 Cook, Mrs. Nannie M.
 Cook, Willard
 Cooke, Julia
 Cooper, Lizzie J.
 Corwin, Mrs. Benjamin
 Corwin, Mrs. Mary
 Coulter, Eva
 Cowles, Bertha A.
 Custard, Emma R.
 Cuthbert, Edward D.
 Cuthbert, Robert Bennett
 Daniels, Mrs. Mame H.
 Darr, Anna E.
 Davidson, Clara H.
 Davidson, Lulu M.
 Davis, Mrs. Mary J.
 Dessaner, Jennie W.
 Devor, Margaret
 Dixon, Grace L.
 Dull, Mrs. M. A.
 Elliott, Miss Maggie J. McN.
 Emery, Maria B.
 Ewing, Addie Swift
 Ferguson, Mrs. Lottie
 Findley, Ada Grace
 Finley, M. D. Henry W.
 Fisher, Mrs. Sarah C. L.
 Fisher, James Henry
 Flaville, Lucy Forrest
 Fleck, Mrs. C. L.
 Flemming, Mrs. Allie J.
 Foster, Mrs. Louisa C.
 Fuss, Ada
 Fuss, Mamie E.
 Gallatin, Sue S.
 Geary, F. DeLong
 Gifford, Mrs. Emma A.

Glasier, Julia B.
Goodwin, Eunice M.
Gordon, Mary B.
Graber, William A.
Griffith, Mrs. Jennie A.
Hale, George
Hal, Nettie Winter
Hanly, Mrs. Rudora W.
Harrison, Oliver
Haydock, Miss Sarah G.
Haydock, Susannah G.
Hays, Sarah C.
Hempstead, Annie M.
Henry, Mrs. Jennie B.
Heyl, Elizabeth Christian
Hoffman, Clara A.
Huckel, Elizabeth R.
Hull, Agnes
Hull, Mrs. Mary L.
Hunsberger, De H. W.
Hunt, Rev. C. C.
Hunter, Lillian Acomb
Hunter, M. Tillie
Hyle, Annie
Irwin, Rosannah
Isenberg, Anna Elizabeth
Johnson, Hubert Rex
Jolly, Miss Magdalena
Jones, Rachel R. W.
Keck, Florence H.
Keiper, Emma S.
Keiser, Mrs. Sophie E.
Kelly, Miss Hannah
Kenderline, Ruth Briggs
Kennedy, Amelia M.
Kennedy, Amelia F.
Kennedy, W. D.
Kinports, Mary Estelle
Klinger, Fred J.
Klinger, Margaret E.
Law, Frank
Lavery, Rev. Joseph H.
Leopold, Annie C.
Leitchworth, Alice C.
Liebendorfer, Mollie
Loughby, Edward George
Love, S. Luella
Lowrey, James G.
Lupher, Mrs. Theresa
Lyle, Lizzie Leora
MacDonald, Miss Katharine
Marquis, Jessie G.
Martin, Miss Caroline
Martin, Mrs. Emma
Mathews, Miss Ellie R.
McAlister, Minnie T.
McClure, Miss Myra
McConkey, Bertha M.
McConkey, Mrs. S.
McCord, Margaret A.
McCormick, Mrs. Julia B.
McCracken, Miss Hannah R.
McGrath, Miss Marian May
McKelvey, Mary Green
McKerihan, Eleanor
McKerihan, Lizzie
McKerihan, Lucy
McNair, Mrs. Jenny S.
McNall, Carrie C.
McSparan, Bella M.
Merrill, Miss Jennie
Merrill, Miss Maria E.
Mershon, Lue J.
Miles, Lillian
Miles, Mrs. Maria S.
Miller, Mrs. Cora J.
Miller, Mattie L.
Miller, S. Alice
Moore, Annie Lewis
Morse, J. Lewis
Mueh, Miss Mary A.
Nelan, Mrs. Ada
Newcomet, Mrs. E. S.
Newitt, Mrs. Clara D.
Newitt, Anna R.
Nicol, Margaret E.
Nicol, Mary H.
Northup, Miss Sara
Ogden, Mrs. J. G.
Ogden, S. Elizabeth
Olmstead, Mrs. Lydia L.
Palmer, Alfred C.
Palmer, Emma M. String
Palmer, Josephine K.
Parker, Norman
Patterson, Blanche P.
Patterson, Isabelle

Patterson, Mary V.
Pawling, Robert Samuel
Payne, Bertha M.
Pearson, Josephine C.
Pearson, Mrs. William D.
Pennypacker, Caroline B.
Pennypacker, Elizabeth
Pennypacker, Margaret
Perkins, Abbie A.
Poppino, Martha Clyde
Prager, Elizaeth B.
Prager, Louise
Purdy, Miss Carrie M.
Ralston, Helen Jewel
Ranney, Mrs. M. E.
Reading, Mrs. Clara F.
Reed, Anna Stevens
Reed, Mrs. Lizzie K.
Roope, Emma L.
Ruple, Anna C.
Sanson, Rev. John R.
Saybolt, Mary L.
Scott, Mrs. Mary S.
Scott, Mrs. Mary Wray
Scott, William James
Sedden, Vilette
Selp, Martha
Sersall, Mrs. Mary J.
Shattuck, Mrs. M. J.
Shaw, Ada Maria
Shaw, Lizzie J.
Sheeligh, Elizabeth S.
Shelmadine, Mrs. N. A.
Shupe, Henry F.
Sims, Emma M.
Simon, Miss Clara Louisa
Small, Maggie V.
Smith, Anna W.
Smith, Bertha C.
Smith, Mary Norris
Smith, Mrs. Olena R.
Smith, Simpson H.
Snowden, M. Retta
Snyder, Fannie E.
Spear, Mary B.
Sprague, Mrs. Mary E.
Starks, Rev. R. B.
Stephens, Elizabeth A.
Stevens, Bessie J.
Stevens, Carrie M.
Stevens, David Bowcher
Stewart, Martha J.
Stiltz, Helen
Stiltz, M. E.
Stock, Maggie S.
Stotter, Luinda A.
Swisher, Anna A.
Swisher, R. Louella
Sutton, Miss Estella V.
Tackabury, Harriett A.
Taylor, Charlotte T.
Taylor, Mrs. J. A.
Taylor, R. E.
Taylor, Samuel Alfred
Taylor, Mrs. Sophia L.
Thatcher, Mrs. Wallace L.
Thomas, Mrs. Edgar
Thompson, George C.
Thompson, Silas Wilson
Thurston, Mrs. Bertha A.
Turner, Ida E.
Underwood, Mrs. Isaac
Van Cleef, Phoebe L.
Van Gunten, Mary A.
Van Fradenburg, Mrs. F.
Wade, Mary L.
Walker, John H.
Wallace, Mrs. R. M.
Ward, Clara E.
Ward, Renee U.
Watson, Caroline E.
Watson, Mary E.
West, Ella Patterson
Whitaker, Mary K.
White, Mary
Wiley, Mrs. J. L.
Williams, Mrs. Libbie
Williams, Margaret L.
Willis, William
Willoughby, Hattie M.
Wilson, Jean R.
Winder, Arthur D.
Wolfe, Edward I.
Wood, Clara Jeannette W.
Woods, Mrs. Lizzie M.
Worth, Lydia L.
Zehnder, Mrs. C. H.

RHODE ISLAND

Anthony, Mary A.
Banning, Alice C.
Bottomley, John W.
Brown, Mrs. R. A. W.
Carr, John Mumford
Cooper, Eleanor J.
Corbin, Etta Amelia
Dewing, Ardenna C.
Dodge, Mrs. Louise M.
Easton, Mrs. Martha A.
Ellis, Mrs. Emily Frances
Ewer, Rev. Charles H.
Ewer, Mary S.
Grout, Carrie May
Husted, Mrs. F. B.
Johnson, Esther P.
Lawton, Nellie S.
Martin, Lizzie E.
Miner, Mrs. Jennie Bentley
Moody, Mrs. Frances D.
Mooney, Frederick H.
Palne, Ella F.
Ring, Eva T.
Scott, Mrs. R. A.
Stanton, Fannie P.
Sullings, A. M. L.
Terry, Myra A.
Thayer, Mabel A.
Thomas, Mrs. Nettie M.
Thurston, Miss Alice C.
Thurston, Mary L.
Tingley, Adella M.
Tuller, Edward Pratt
Turner, Elizabeth Read

SOUTH CAROLINA

Bond, Oliver James
Duncan, Rev. Watson B.
Glover, Julia Lestariette
Hollingsworth, Ola
Jackson, Anthony
Knight, John Marion
Martin, Mary McLeod
Roach, Fanny Cuthbert
Robb, Jean D.
Rowell, Albert S.
Smith, Ammie J.
Smith, Lizzie F.

SOUTH DAKOTA

Allen, Lois Evelyn
Anderson, Belle
Andrews, Mrs. Lizzie D.
Boals, Elmira C.
Boardman, Charles N.
Carns, John Booth
Coe, Clara Demaris
Eaton, Minerva J.
Hart, Mary Wheeler
Hart, Newton W.
Hill, William S.
Hill, Mrs. W. S.
Lane, Louis Layton
Lanz, Henry W.
Lanz, Mrs. H. W.
McCutchan, Mrs. T. B.
Morse, Charles A.
Morse, Mrs. Frances C.
Morse, Sara A.
Morse, William A.
Norton, Carrie B.
Phillips, Annie Cornelia
Pyle, John L.
Roe, Delia Maria
Simonds, Miss Olive
Snell, Ella A.
Spaulding, Julia F.
Taylor, Mary Dickson

TENNESSEE

Andrews, Lucy Caroline
Byrne, Mrs. Belle T.
Davis, Lillian J.
Herdson, Mrs. Laura C.
Jarrell, Cora
Jarrell, Emma
Mays, Reuben Walter
Smith, Mrs. Sallie Ely
Stevens, Mrs. S. F.
Vale, Katherine E.

TEXAS

Alexander, William Henry

Blount, Emma C.
Bolles, Mrs. Nettie Hubbard
Bragg, Mrs. Dr. T. H.
Brelsford, Mary
Brown, Marion T.
Calhoun, Rev. John C.
Cobb, Mrs. Emma G.
Cochran, Sue H.
Cooper, Willis Alceustus
Crayton, Mrs. J. W.
Crump, Mrs. Eva H. G.
Hammond, Mrs. Amanda C.
Kauffman, Kate Rowena
Keller, Fannie R.
Keyte, Jennie Viola
Reilly, Mrs. William T.
Simpson, Emma J.
Simpson, Mrs. French
Steele, Mrs. Hettie T.
Van Tuyl, Ariadne Jarrette
Whitemarsh, Alvah H.
Williams, Walter Erskine
Wilson, Mrs. Belle A.
Wilson, Llewella
Woodrum, Mattie
Yousens, Ruth M.

UTAH

Goodrich, Libbie A.
Lester, Sarah J.
Nichol, Mary Lucila
Sharp, Mrs. Belle

VERMONT

Adsit, Mrs. E. Stella
Adsit, M. C. Spencer M.
Averill, Lizzie Beckley
Bass, Susa S.
Boyce, Lou Lillian
Brown, Evelyn Maria
Bryan, Mary Belle
Buck, Miss Amy Edith
Church, Mary Elizabeth
Cone, Mrs. Mark S.
Denio, Mrs. Elzina Salome
Dow, Miss Jessie F.
Dow, Lilla F.
Dwinell, Mrs. Eliza M.
Farnsworth, Amelia A.
Farnsworth, Charles H.
Fitch, Verena M.
Gebbie, Mary A.
Gerry, Constance M.
Hale, Annie Rogene
Harlow, May Lincoln
Holmes, Mrs. Laura C.
Holton, Cornelia L.
Horion, Minnie E.
Johnston, Frank A.
Lucas, Mrs. Nellie E.
Marr, William
Marsh, Mrs. Minnie
Maurer, Mary E.
Maurer, Sophia
McWhorter, Mrs. Ethel
Palmer, Minerva A.
Parker, Mary Elizabeth
Pheips, Annie Joselyn
Pierce, Mrs. Kate F.
Putnam, Jennie E.
Robbins, Jennie A.
Shattuck, Mamie K.
Shaw, Minnie Maria
Sherburne, Mrs. Lola W.
Silsby, Jennie A.
Smith, Mrs. Margaret A.
Tewksbury, Anna M. D.
Townsend, Mrs. Martha A.
Tuttle, Mrs. Mary E.
Twitchell, Flora Saben
Vaughan, Little M.
Walker, Mrs. Maria F.
Williams, Laura B.
Yousen, Miss Corrie B.
Yousen, Eva J.

VIRGINIA

Anderson, Maza Blah
Bryant, Mamie L.
Cunningham, Lummie L.
Greene, Mrs. Chloe Tyler
Greene, Jane Ellen
Miller, Margaret Cecilia
Platt, Mrs. L. B.

Shafer, Janie Armstrong

WASHINGTON

Borle, Mrs. Franc M.
Cooper, Jennie D.
Goss, S. Maria
Honey, Sara Frances
Hudgins, Mrs. Fannie B.
Jones, Mrs. Edwin F.
Lord, Mrs. Mary W.
Murray, Mrs. Jessie W.
Stone, Wesley C.
Wint, Mrs. Lida P.

WEST VIRGINIA

Ballard, John L.
Bender, I. L.
Bender, Mrs. Margaret E.
Carr, Abraham Smith
Cline, Agnes B.
Curtis, Callie W.
Delano, Bianca M.
Dunn, Milored A. F.
Griffith, Miss Annie
Griffith, Marguerite C.
Hobson, Mary A.
Jarvis, Willia M.
Johnson, Rose C.
King, E. D. W.
Koonitz, J. W.
McChesney, Mrs. Lucy J.
Morgan, M. D., D. Porter
Rose, Mrs. Josie F.
Rose, S. B.
Spessard, Miss Sue
Wendt, Mrs. Amelia B.
Young, Annie Laura

WISCONSIN

Allen, Mrs. F. C.
Allen, Frank C.
Alsmeyer, E. C.
Anderson, Mrs. Minnie
Arnold, Mrs. Charles J.
Bacon, Mrs. Agnes
Bacon, Mrs. Isabella
Baldock, Clara L.
Blanchard, Mary R.
Bloomer, William H.

Brewster, Emma Moyer
Bunker, Mrs. Henry
Chittenden, Mrs. G. W.
Clancy, Sadie E.
Cleghorn, J. F.
Cobban, Mabel K.
Cochrane, Mrs. Ella K.
Colburn, Mrs. Mattie
Cole, Mrs. Jennie S.
Cooper, Mrs. Eunice E. F.
Cowles, Emma A.
Cox, Mrs. C. G.
Cox, Killissa W.
Crain, Dorothy Phelps
Deming, Mrs. Ella Merry
Dickey, Helene Louise
Eldridge, J. D.
Evensen, Mrs. Carrie
Fellows, Jane A.
Fish, Mrs. Emilie B.
Gamble, Clara
Gardiner, Miss Ella
Gardner, Mrs. Virginia M.
Gilman, Mrs. Sophie W.
Gorton, Anne
Groves, Susie S.
Haney, Mrs. Frances M.
Hanz, Mary Fletcher
Harkins, John P.
Henderson, Mrs. Clara W.
Hill, George Cook
Hill, Georgianna B.
Hopkins, Mrs. Carrie Eliza
Hoyt, Caroline M.
Irish, Isabella H.
Jaeger, Mary R.
Jeffries, Florence E.
Johnson, Georgia S.
Jones, George Gilbert
Kelly, Hannah M.
Kelly, Mrs. H. M.
Kester, Mrs. Leonora
Kilmer, Mrs. Mary
Kimbrough, Mrs. Kate
King, Mrs. Anna C.
Lane, Mrs. Mary M.
Lloyd, Miss Sarah
Lovejoy, Mrs. Lucy M.
Mahoney, Mrs. M. E.
Marquart, Margaret J.
Mills, Mrs. A. V.
Moorehouse, Mrs. Mary E.
Muager, Mrs. Gertrude B.

Northrop, Jennie E.
Oertel, Mary Janet
Olmsted, Minnie E.
Page, Lucia Kate
Page, Mrs. Lucinda W.
Perry, Lucy Norton
Phillips, George F.
Pilgrim, Lucracia J.
Powers, Mrs. Elizabeth S.
Powers, Miss May E.
Rederus, Sipko
Reed, Mrs. Anna B.
Rhodes, Annibel H.
Richardson, Mrs. M. J.
Rose, Mrs. Florence L.
Royce, Miss Alice A.
Shibley, Addie
Shumway, Lillian M.
Smith, M. A. Bradford
Stevens, John V.
Sutherland, Miss Anna E.
Tarbell, Mrs. Sarah
Travis, Julia A.
Travis, Mary A.
Walker, Lucy E.
Weston, Mrs. Viola A. J.
Wheeler, Mrs. Betsey S.
Whitfield, Mrs. Alice L.
Whipple, Mrs. Allie S.
Whitaker, Mrs. Louisa
Wildier, Mrs. Clara B.
Williams, Miss Sara

Grierson, Jean E.
Irvine, Henry
Jenkins, W. H.
Johnston, Helen L.
Kenned, Maggie May
Kirkpatrick, Mary
Lamont, Sophie M.
Luckham, Daniel R.
Mahood, Helena
Masson, James
Masson, Jane Stewart
McCracken, James B.
McEwen, John
McNish, Mrs. Warren
McVety, William
Parker, Fanny Aline
Polley, Thomas J.
Richards, Drusilla
Roome, Mrs. Harriet
Rowland, Emma Miriam
Shearer, Mrs. Cordelia B.
Shoultis, Helen
Sutherland, Kate M. T.
Thoma, William
Wade, Luella M.
Wade, Mary Jennie
Watt, Arthur
White, John Hunter

GREAT BRITAIN

Baragwanath, John
Cochran, Catharine
Fiah, John
Fleming, John Robert
Marshall, A. Millar
Minns, Fannie Mary
Sayer, Elizabeth Price
Wilkinson, Mrs. Besie
Wilkinson, Frederic W.

CANADA

Barker, Rose Hannah
Bedford, Alfred
Bedford, F. M.
Bell, William
Charman, Miss Eliza G.
Charman, Miss Mary E.
Clerk, Thora Douglas
Coates, Lillian May G.
Corbett, Margaret Jane
Crone, A. G.
Crysaler, Emma Jean
Dienalde, Mrs. Hannie L.
Follett, Mary
Fryer, Joseph H.
Gilman, Annie C. T.
Gilman, Mary Gardner
Goucher, Mrs. Jean E.
Goucher, Rev. William C.

FOREIGN

Eby, Mrs. Ellen K.
Ferguson, Abbie Park
Howe, Julia M.
Lawson, Anna E.
McCandless, Mrs. Ella
McCully, Ellen Harvey
Necrasoff, Anna
Wilson, Gertrude Elizabeth

MEMBERS OF THE GUILD OF THE SEVEN SEALS.

The following persons have attained this order during the past year:

CLASS 1882

Blake, John R., Mich.
Blake, Mrs. N. Louise, Mich.
Bloxham, Mrs. C. M., N. J.
Clift, Anna M., Penn.
Chapman, Mrs. L. M., N. Y.
Davis, Mrs. Chas. W., N. Y.
Harris, Luella A., Penn.
Shepherd, Mrs. A. P., Ohio.
Swain, Mrs. L. H., N. J.

CLASS 1883

Black, Mrs. M. A., Penn.
Kean, Mrs. Anna R., Ill.
Kirby, Miss Ida H., N. J.

CLASS 1884

Brindell, Mrs. A. R., Iowa.
Kry, Mrs. Sarah, Iowa.
Smith, Fayette A., Kans.

CLASS 1885

Chase, Mrs. John J., Mass.

Hoadley, Mrs. M. W., Ohio.
Scales, George, Canada
Smith, Miss Alice E., Ind.
Warren, Mrs. Mary F., Ill.

CLASS 1886

Atkins, Miss J. B., N. Y.
Barmore, Mrs. A. H., N. Y.
Callaghan, Miss A., N. Y.
Dart, Mrs. Maria E., Iowa.
Haverslick, Mrs. M. L., Pa.
Pettit, Mrs. Laura E., N. Y.
Thompson, Miss A., Ohio.

CLASS 1887

Beam, Mrs. Myra A., N. Y.
Brown, Mrs. C. M., Mich.
Drinkwater, Mrs. H. E., Mass.
McCord, Mrs. Emily, Iowa.
Orgain, Mrs. Sarah J., Tex.
Phillips, Mrs. Irene M., Ill.
Schuler, Mrs. M. C., Minn.

Wickens, Walter, Canada.
Wilcox, Mrs. M. L., N. Y.

CLASS 1888

Banning, Mrs. H. E., R. I.
Brown, Mrs. H. N., Iowa.
Comstock, Miss Kate A., Ill.
Denison, Miss S. A., Conn.
Fogg, Mrs. Della L., Wash.
Kimball, Mrs. F. A., Colo.
McKay, William, N. Y.
North, Mrs. E. M., Cal.
Risser, Mrs. Mary E., Ill.
Sedgwick, Mrs. S. E., Ohio.
Smith, Miss Maria L., Pa.
Steele, Mrs. J. T., Ga.
Teller, Mrs. Anna C., N. Y.
Tittman, Mrs. M. R., N. J.

CLASS 1889

Baily, Mrs. B. F., Ill.

Gifford, Mrs. Mary L., Ill.
Goodwin, Alice J., Ind.
Hawes, Mrs. Jennie R., Ill.
Hunt, Ada M., Mass.
Parkhurst, Mrs. R. A., Mass.
Sanders, Mrs. Sue A., Ill.
Stevens, Rev. J. S., Mass.

CLASS 1890

Aldrich, Miss H. M., N. Y.
Clugston, Mrs. Susan, Wis.
Duncan, Mrs. A. L., Pa.
Fishburn, Mrs. H. L., Pa.
Waterman, D. D., H. B., Ill.

CLASS 1891

Anderson, Mrs. B., Kans.
Beers, Mrs. Louise W., Ill.
Brown, Mrs. M. F., S. Dak.
Champlin, Geo. G., Mass.
Crane, Mrs. F. A., Iowa.
Guernsey, Mrs. L. E., Kans.

